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ABSTRACT

The fourth annual secretary of agriculture report on rural development progress (prepared in response to a directive from the Rural Development Act of 1972) presents the most recently available status data on employment, income, population, housing, and community services and facilities, discusses examples of federal efforts to improve or expand delivery of services in key areas and summarizes rural concerns and developmental responses from a sampling of states. This year, for the first time, the annual report also looks at target population groups, such as the rural elderly, handicapped, social security recipients, and those who receive Aid to Families with Dependent Children. Indicating whether there has been progress in stated rural development goal areas, the report also discusses examples of efforts by several federal agencies to improve or expand delivery of services in rural health care, housing, and manpower/employment programs and summarizes four important innovations in rural education around the country (Regional Educational Service Agencies, or RESA, rural community colleges, rural school improvement projects, community development). Part three contains material on rural development trends, concerns, and responses from 21 states; content categories are income and employment, population, housing, health, education, water and waste, and transportation. (RS)

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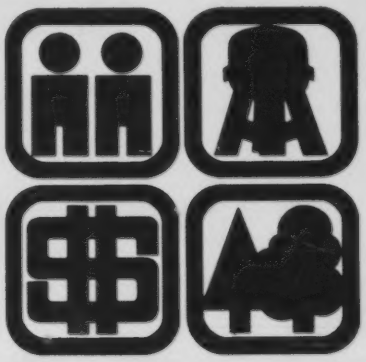
Rural Development Progress

Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of Agriculture to the Congress



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(Pursuant to Title VI, Section 603(b), of the Rural Development Act of 1972)

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20250

January 19, 1977

To the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House:

Today I am transmitting the fourth annual report on rural development progress, pursuant to Title VI, Section 603(b), of the Rural Development Act of 1972.

This report presents the status of rural employment, income, population, housing and community services and facilities; discusses examples of efforts of several Federal agencies to improve or expand the delivery of services in key areas; and summarizes a sampling from the states of their rural concerns and developmental responses.

The report is comprehensive and reflective of substantial progress in rural development. The Congress should find it useful and responsive to the requirements expressed in the Rural Development Act.

Sincerely,

John A. Knebel
Secretary

Enclosure

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RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRESS--FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE TO THE CONGRESS

INTRODUCTION

The Rural Development Act of 1972, in title VI, section 603, directs the Secretary of Agriculture to establish goals for rural development and to report annually on progress in attaining the goals. This report has been prepared in response to that directive.

In the Second Annual Report, goals derived from legislative history were set forth in the congressionally mandated categories of employment, income, population, housing, and community services and facilities. Actions taken by U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) agencies relating to the five goals were reported on, and considerations involved in setting meaningful goals were discussed. The goals and the Federal role in their attainment are:

Employment: Assist in the creation of a climate conducive to growth in the employment base of rural America, thereby providing a range of job opportunities for those who wish to live in rural areas.

Income: Contribute to the development of job opportunities in rural areas which generate incomes equal in terms of effective purchasing power to those in metropolitan areas.

Population: Support a "balance" between rural and metropolitan populations compatible with the overall national quality of life and economic health.

Housing: Facilitate the attainment of access to standard quality housing in rural areas equal to that in metropolitan areas.

Community Services and Facilities: Aid local governments and other entities to provide access to adequate community services and facilities in rural areas.

The Third Annual Report discussed some of the considerations involved in measuring and assessing rural development progress, and highlighted and discussed the most recently available data indicating whether there had been progress in the mandated goals areas. It also discussed the rural development coordination activities of the Department of Agriculture's Rural Development Service and reported on Federal agencies' fiscal 1975 activities in rural areas.

Part I of this report highlights and discusses the most recently available rural status data in the goal categories. Part II discusses examples of efforts of several Federal agencies to improve or expand the delivery of services in such key areas as rural health care, housing, and manpower and employment programs, and summarizes innovations in rural education around the country. And Part III discusses the rural concerns and developmental response from a sampling of the States.

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The Secretary of Agriculture's Rural Development Progress Report has each year examined an increasing number of community services and facilities in addition to the legislatively identified categories of population, income, housing, and employment. It has also been addressing an increasing number of issues vital to rural development. At the same time, we are aware of omissions in the report. Keeping in mind that it is one report, there are important subjects that have yet to be treated. For example, past reports have emphasized national trends with very little attention given to regions or to special population groups. While we have not yet been able to expand the report to give regional analysis, this year for the first time the report looks at the situation for several population groups including the rural elderly and the handicapped in rural areas.

An omission that has not yet been met is the absence of any statement on rural environmental policy in the reports issued thus far. The Department of Agriculture is concerned about this matter and is currently developing plans for arranging for inclusion in the upcoming Fifth Report, a paper on the subject of rural environmental policy and progress in the context of the dramatic increase in rural population growth and economic development since 1970. The papers in this Fourth Report which document that growth and development will be reviewed by those responsible for preparing the environmental paper, and it is planned that their response will be tailored to the issue of the changing face of rural America as a result of rural development; the implications that the changes have for the rural physical environment; and the responses taken thus far and those still needed, on the part of government, the private sector, and individual citizens. It is planned that this paper will also give attention to the impact of the energy situation on the rural environment.

Part I

PROGRESS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

This section presents highlights of the most recently available data indicating whether there has been progress in the stated rural development goals areas. In several goals areas, it is not possible to give a true progress report, because of the lack of comparable data covering a recent time period. In such cases, the current situation is described. In the community facilities and services goal category, two types of subcategories are given attention. In some instances there are activity areas such as education, health care, fire prevention and control, and public transportation, while in other instances the subjects are target populations, such as the elderly and the disabled in rural areas. The intent of this section is to show the great amount of progress and revitalization occurring in rural America in the 1970's while at the same time focusing on the serious problems remaining for rural development.

EMPLOYMENT

Goal

The national rural development employment goal is to:

> Assist in the creation of a climate conducive to growth in the employment base of rural America, thereby providing a range of job opportunities to those who wish to live in rural areas.

Status Indicators

*Total nonmetropolitan employment increased at a faster rate than metropolitan employment from the first quarter of 1975 to the third quarter of 1976--an average of 11.2 percent vs. 5.7 percent. (Fourth quarter data not available at time of publication.)

*Nonmetropolitan unemployment was less severe than metropolitan unemployment during most of 1975 and in the first, second, and third quarters of 1976.

*Nonmetropolitan areas across the Nation had different rates of employment growth from March 1970 to March 1976.1/ Nationally, nonmetropolitan nonfarm wage and salary employment grew at an average rate of 15.9 percent for this 6-year period, compared with 7.5 percent in metropolitan areas. The Northeast's nonmetropolitan areas had the lowest average growth, 7 percent, and the Western Region had the highest, 29.6 percent. Comparable nonmetropolitan employment in the Southern and North Central Regions increased 18.7 percent and 11.1 percent, respectively.

*Employment in agriculture has remained fairly stable at around 3.5 million annually in the 1970's.

Discussion

The nonmetropolitan employment situation in the 1970's is in sharp contrast to trends in employment growth and structure of employment in many nonmetropolitan areas in prior years. During the 1950's and 1960's, two of rural America's traditional industries, agriculture and mining, experienced significant reductions in employment. Agriculture lost over 3.5 million jobs, while mining lost over one-quarter million jobs. During much of this period, employment increased in manufacturing, services, and other industries in many nonmetropolitan areas, but labor use in these growth industries was too small to employ all the workers displaced in agriculture and mining and new workers entering the labor force. As a result, large reductions in employment in agriculture and mining overshadowed the gains, triggering the large population migration to the cities.

NOTE: This paper was prepared in the Economic Development Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

1/ At the time of preparation of this regional analysis, March 1975 data were the latest available.

The case of employment decline in agriculture is well known. Widespread applications of improved varieties of plants and animals, improved cultural and management practices, and labor-reducing machines led to significant increases in the supply of agricultural commodities, while smaller amounts of labor were required. The capacity of U.S. agriculture to produce was greater than the demand for farm products. In the 1970's, the period of declining labor requirement in agriculture seems to have ended. Employment in agriculture has remained fairly stable at around 3.5 million in recent years, as the demand for U.S. farm products in foreign markets has increased.

The number of mining jobs lost was not as large as the losses in agriculture, nor were the losses as widespread across the Nation. Nevertheless, the declines led to serious economic adjustment problems in most mining communities. Between 1950 and 1970, coal mining employment declined well over 50 percent, with the largest part of the decrease occurring in the 1950's. Coal mining accounted for most of the employment declines in mining, but some losses in oil and gas extraction added to the unemployment problem.

The reduction in coal mining employment was due largely to a decline in demand for coal by railroads as they changed from steam to diesel power, and by consumers as they switched from coal to oil and gas for space heating. The decline in these markets was only partially offset by an increase in the demand for coal by electric power utilities, and by some increase in exports. Labor use in mining declined further as mine operators made greater use of labor-saving machines to extract coal. During the late 1960's and 1970's, the demand for coal by electric utilities increased significantly, checking the long-term decline in employment. This increase in demand was sufficient to cause mining employment to increase in the 1970's.

So far, the nonmetropolitan employment situation in the 1970's has been encouraging. The decline in agriculture seems to have ended, mining employment has increased after long-term declines, and employment gains have occurred in other nonfarm industries. However, there have been some dark spots. The recent recession seriously checked overall employment gains and caused large cutbacks in some industries. Nevertheless, all nonmetropolitan nonfarm wage and salary employment in March 1976 was nearly 16 percent higher than the March 1970 levels. Comparable data for metropolitan areas show a growth rate for this 6-year period of about one-half the nonmetropolitan rate. 2/ This larger growth rate in nonmetropolitan areas meant that these areas had a larger share of total U.S. nonfarm wage and salary employment in March 1976 (25.7 percent) than in March 1970 (24.3 percent). Moreover, nonmetropolitan areas gained a larger share of the Nation's wage and salary employment in all major nonfarm industry categories, except government. 3/ Manufacturing was hit especially hard by the recession. Nonmetropolitan manufacturing had relatively high employment growth rates during most of 1971, 1972, and 1973, but these gains were lost as the recession deepened. However, the recovery during 1975

2/ The employment data in this section showing changes from March 1970 to March 1976 are based on State Employment Security Agency estimates.

3/ The major nonfarm industry categories are: mining; construction; manufacturing; transportation, communication, and public utilities; wholesale and retail trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; services; and government.

and the first part of 1976 was sufficient to bring nonmetropolitan manufacturing wage and salary employment levels in March 1976 to 2 percent above March 1970 levels. In comparison to manufacturing, nonmetropolitan retail and wholesale trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; the services; mining; and construction had growth rates ranging from 21 to 31 percent for the 6 years ending in March 1976.

During this 6-year period, regional variations in nonmetropolitan nonfarm wage and salary employment growth were noteworthy. In each of the four major regions, 4/ employment growth rates in nonmetropolitan areas were larger than in metropolitan areas. However, nonmetropolitan areas in the South and West stand out as growth areas. Overall, employment in nonmetropolitan areas in the South and West increased 18.7 percent and 29.6 percent during these 6 years, compared with 11.1 percent in the North Central Region and 7 percent in the Northeast. In addition, employment increased in each of the major nonfarm industry categories in the Western and Southern Regions. In contrast, manufacturing employment declined in the Northeastern and North Central nonmetropolitan areas, and construction employment declined in the Northeast.

Several factors apparently are responsible for the higher employment growth rates in nonmetropolitan areas. For example, improvements in transportation, including highways and regional airports, have encouraged decentralization of manufacturing and other kinds of economic activity. Lower labor and land costs in many nonmetropolitan communities have also contributed to the decentralization. Construction employment has increased as new firms have located in nonmetropolitan areas and older plants expanded. The construction of transportation facilities, homes, and numerous electrical generation facilities in nonmetropolitan areas has added to the employment growth. Also, people's preferences regarding places to live have been a factor. Research and surveys have shown that many people prefer less congested rural-like areas to more congested urban places.

As mentioned above, nommetropolitan employment growth was seriously curtailed in the 1970's by several months of recession. However, in 1975, the economy began to recover. The national unemployment rate, seasonally adjusted, peaked in May 1975 at 8.9 percent, ending a period of rising unemployment starting in the last quarter of 1973, when the unemployment rate was less than 5 percent. From the high level in May 1975, the rate gradually dropped to 7.5 percent in June 1976, but increased slightly between June and September 1976 to 7.8 percent. 5/

4/ The four regions--Northeast, North Central, South, and West--are comprised of the following States. Northeast: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Vermont. North Central: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. South: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. West: Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

5/ The employment and unemployment numbers reporting changes from the first quarter of 1975 to the third quarter of 1976 are from Employment and Earnings, various months, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

Although the unemployment rate remains seriously high in both nonmetropolitan and metropolitan areas, nonmetropolitan areas showed slightly greater improvement in the unemployment situation from the first quarter of 1975 to the third quarter of 1976 (table 1). The nonmetropolitan rate, not seasonally adjusted, declined from 9.2 percent in the first quarter of 1975 to 8.1 percent in the first quarter of 1976. 6/ Further improvement in the nonmetropolitan employment situation caused the rate to drop another 1.4 percentage points to 6.7 percent in the third quarter of 1976. In comparison, the unemployment rate in metropolitan areas dropped from 9.1 percent in the first quarter of 1975 to 8.0 percent in the third quarter of 1976. In addition, relative gains in the nonmetropolitan labor force and total employment were greater than in metropolitan areas for these months.

Table 1--Unemployment rates for metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas, first quarter 1975 to third quarter 1976 (not seasonally adjusted)

Area	Unemployment rate (percent)						
	1975				1976		
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III
Metropolitan	9.1	8.8	8.7	8.1	8.7	7.7	8.0
Nonmetropolitan	9.2	8.3	7.5	7.0	8.1	6.5	6.7

Source: Employment and Earnings, various months, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

The improvement in nonmetropolitan unemployment was pervasive across race, sex, and age groups. Joblessness among white men and women, men and women of black and other races, and teenagers of all races declined from the first quarter of 1975 to the third quarter of 1976. In spite of these overall improvements, substantial differences remain in unemployment rates among groups. In the third quarter of 1976, the nonmetropolitan unemployment rate for all white workers, at 6.1 percent, was only one-half the rate for black and other workers (13.4 percent). As a group, white men had the lowest rate (5.0 percent) and black women had the highest (17.2 percent). The unemployment rate for black men was about twice the rate for white men. The third quarter rate for all women was 8.8 percent, but race differences were significant. The rate for white women was 7.9 percent, compared to 17.2 percent for women of black and other races.

6/ The national unemployment rates, cited above, were adjusted to account for normal fluctuations in seasonal employment by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Seasonal adjustment factors are not yet available from the Bureau of Labor Statistics for nonmetropolitan and metropolitan employment and unemployment data.

A comparison of the racial and age distributions of the nonmetropolitan labor force and unemployed shows further the seriousness of unemployment for some groups. Blacks and other races comprised about 17 percent of the nonmetropolitan unemployed, but only 8 percent of the labor force. Teenagers comprised almost one-fourth of the unemployed, but only 11 percent of the labor force. White workers, who had the lowest rates of unemployment, comprised about 83 percent of the unemployed and 92 percent of the labor force.

Many of the numbers presented in this review of employment changes in the 1970's show that nonmetropolitan areas are doing at least as well as metropolitan areas, and better than metropolitan areas according to some indicators. However, there are some important employment and employment-related indicators that show nonmetropolitan areas still lagging behind metropolitan areas. Wage rates, discussed in another section of this report, are generally lower in nonmetropolitan areas. In addition, labor force participation rates--that is, the percentage of the working age population either working or looking for work--are lower in nonmetropolitan areas (table 2). The combined effect of lower wage rates and lower labor force participation results in lower family income in nonmetropolitan communities compared to metropolitan areas.

Table 2--Labor force participation rates for metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas, first quarter of 1975 to the third quarter of 1976 (not seasonally adjusted)

Item	Labor force participation rates (percent)						
	1975				1976		
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III
Metropolitan	61.8	62.2	62.7	61.8	61.9	62.5	63.2
Men	78.4	79.1	79.9	77.6	77.3	78.6	79.7
Women	47.1	47.2	47.5	47.9	48.2	48.2	48.5
Nonmetropolitan	58.2	59.2	60.4	59.2	58.2	59.2	60.8
Men	74.9	76.5	77.9	75.3	74.5	75.8	77.3
Women	43.0	43.5	44.5	44.5	43.3	44.1	45.9

Source: Employment and Earnings, various issues, and unpublished data, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Furthermore, there was little evidence to show any narrowing in the metropolitan-nonmetropolitan gap in labor force participation from the first quarter of 1975 to the third quarter of 1976. Overall, the metropolitan rate in the third quarter of 1976, at 63.2 percent, was 2.4 percentage points higher than the nonmetropolitan rate. A year earlier, in the third quarter of 1975, the gap was 2.3 percentage points. Although substantial improvements have been made, employment opportunities for both men and women are generally less in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas. Not only are fewer total jobs available for the working age population in nonmetropolitan areas, but more of the available jobs pay low wages and require lower level skills than do

jobs in metropolitan areas. In the second quarter of 1976, for example, almost 10 percent of the nonmetropolitan employed were in jobs classified as "laborers," compared to 5.3 percent in metropolitan areas. In contrast, only 21 percent of the employed in nonmetropolitan areas were in the higher skilled professional, technical, and managerial occupations, compared to almost 28 percent in metropolitan areas. A major challenge facing many nonmetropolitan communities is to increase the employment opportunities for all wanting to work and to upgrade wage rates.

INCOME

Goal

The national rural development income goal is to:

> Contribute to the development of job opportunities in rural areas which generate incomes equal in terms of effective purchasing power to those in metropolitan areas.

Status Indicators

Analysis of the most recently available income data shows that:

*Median family income rose faster in nonmetropolitan than in metropolitan areas from 1970 through 1975 (38.9 percent vs. 38.1 percent over the entire 6-year period, when measured in current dollars). Although this trend is encouraging for nonmetropolitan residents, their income continues to lag behind metropolitan residents' income by a substantial margin, $11,600 vs. $14,909 as of 1975.

*The number of nonmetropolitan families with incomes below the official poverty level dropped 12.7 percent over the 1970-75 period. The number of poor metropolitan families increased 21.1 percent, for a 4.5 percent rise in poverty for the country as a whole. (As discussed below, this 21.1 percent rise reflects the fact that the 1971 recession's impact was felt more heavily in metropolitan areas because it affected urban-oriented industries in the North.)

Discussion

The improvement in nonmetropolitan median income is partially related to employment progress (discussed in the previous paper) that has resulted in increases in earnings in nonmetropolitan areas. By 1973, the last year for which earnings data are available, the profile of mean earnings in nonmetropolitan areas had become very similar to that found in metropolitan areas. The metropolitan/nonmetropolitan mean earnings difference for males by industry declined during 1969-73. In 1969, the difference in mean earnings in all major industry groupings for metropolitan males compared with nonmetropolitan males was $2,625, and by 1973 this difference had fallen to $2,252, a decline of 14.2 percent.

Significant gains have been made in eliminating differences in mean earnings in mining, wholesale trade, personal services, professional services, and entertainment and recreation. The greatest advances were made in the last three industry groupings. These phenomena can be attributed to greater rates of change in nonmetropolitan incomes relative to metropolitan incomes in the time

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NOTE: This paper was prepared in the Economic Development Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

period under consideration. (Mean earnings differences declined 79 percent in the personal services areas, 33 percent in the entertainment and recreation group, and 55 percent in professional services (table 1)).

Metropolitan/nonmetropolitan mean earnings differences for females are not as encouraging as the figures for males. The 1970 difference for females was $1,039, and it increased to $1,082 in 1974. This divergence in female earnings differences can be attributed to more numerous employment possibilities and higher labor force participation rates for females in metropolitan areas. In 1974, the percent of metropolitan females in the civilian labor force was 46.3, compared with 42.8 percent for nonmetropolitan females.

Regional analysis of income data for 1975 indicates that nonmetropolitan median family income in the North and West increased by 0.9 percent in the 1969-75 period, while metropolitan median income fell by 6.3 percent. In the Southern region, changes in nonmetropolitan and metropolitan median incomes, respectively, were +7.8 and -7.8 percent.

Most of the relative gains made in nonmetropolitan incomes were in the North and West (taken together), where there was a significant narrowing in the difference between metropolitan/nonmetropolitan median income over the 1969-75 period (table 2). In 1969, the metropolitan/nonmetropolitan median income difference for the North and West was $2,580, and it fell to $1,595 in 1975. The decline in the metropolitan/nonmetropolitan income difference for the South was also significant, changing from $3,137 in 1969 to $1,641 in 1975.

Other evidence of gains made in eliminating metropolitan/nonmetropolitan income differences is found when comparing total personal incomes in 1970 and 1974. Total personal income in metropolitan areas grew by 40.7 percent in this period, compared with 49.6 percent in nonmetropolitan areas. The faster growth in nonmetropolitan areas occurred in all four Census regions. In both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas and in all four regions (Northeast, North Central, South, and West), the proportion of total personal income from wages and salaries decreased during 1970-74 while the proportion from transfer payments increased. The transfer payments/personal income ratio is also higher for nonmetropolitan areas.

Although the evidence presented above indicates that the relative income situation in nonmetropolitan areas has improved in recent years, there still exists a large gap in metropolitan/nonmetropolitan median income ($3,309 in 1975). However, because of the lower cost of living in nonmetropolitan areas, the real median family income gap between nonmetropolitan and metropolitan areas is smaller than it appears to be in current dollar data.

Contributing to the metropolitan/nonmetropolitan income gap is the differing manufacturing industry mix in the two types of areas, with nonmetropolitan areas continuing to have a disproportionate share of lower wage industries (textile mill products manufacturing, for example).

Another factor contributing to the income gap is lower labor force participation in nonmetropolitan areas. In 1974, 77.6 percent of metropolitan males 16 and over were in the civilian labor force, compared with 74.9 percent of

Table 1--Mean earnings by industry, males, 1973 and 1969, and metropolitan/nonmetropolitan differences

Major industry group	1973				1969			
	U.S.	Metro.	Nonmetro.	Metro/nonmetro difference	U.S.	Metro.	Nonmetro.	Metro./Nonmetro. diff.
Total	$10,459	$11,164	$ 8,192	+$2,252	$10,395	$11,183	$ 8,558	+$2,625
Agriculture, etc.	6,997	7,064	6,977	+ 87	6,458	6,933	6,283	+ 650
Mining	10,789	12,313	9,887	+ 2,426	10,707	12,732	9,468	+ 3,264
Construction	10,199	11,045	8,720	+ 2,365	10,057	10,940	8,388	+ 2,552
Manufacturing, total	10,839	11,553	9,191	+ 2,362	10,697	11,449	8,787	+ 2,662
Durables	10,886	11,561	9,200	+ 2,361	10,843	11,510	8,941	+ 2,569
Nondurables	10,753	11,536	9,172	+ 2,364	10,420	11,319	8,561	+ 2,758
Transportation, etc.	11,272	11,864	9,680	+ 2,184	10,571	11,008	9,335	+ 1,673
Wholesale trade	11,738	12,192	9,929	+ 2,263	11,709	12,309	9,441	+ 2,868
Retail trade	8,052	8,295	7,511	+ 784	8,292	8,606	7,548	+ 1,058
Fin., ins., real estate	13,238	13,490	12,183	+ 1,307	13,716	13,972	12,560	+ 1,412
Business & repair services	9,026	9,517	7,380	+ 2,137	10,059	10,620	8,032	+ 2,588
Personal services	7,863	7,929	7,677	+ 252	7,494	7,821	6,622	+ 1,199
Entertainment & recreation	7,902	8,439	6,014	+ 2,425	9,108	9,873	6,274	+ 3,599
Professional services	12,194	12,551	11,143	+ 1,408	12,808	13,627	10,492	+ 3,135
Public administration	11,970	12,623	10,084	+ 2,539	11,150	11,602	9,715	+ 1,887

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. "Social and Economic Characteristics of the Metropolitan and Nonmetropolitan Population: 1974 and 1970," Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 55. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1975. Table 16, pp. 92-95.

Table 2--Median family income in metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas, 1969, 1975, and 1969-75 change by region

(Constant 1973 dollars)

Item	1969	1975	Percent change 1969-75
United States	11,518	11,471	-0.4
Metropolitan	12,528	12,466	-0.4
Nonmetropolitan	9,314	9,699	+4.1
North and West	12,318	12,079	-1.9
Metropolitan	12,919	12,094	-6.3
Nonmetropolitan	10,339	10,499	+0.9
South	9,593	10,231	+6.6
Metropolitan	11,101	10,231	-7.8
Nonmetropolitan	7,964	8,590	+7.8

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. "Social and Economic Characteristics of the Metropolitan and Nonmetropolitan Population: 1974 and 1970," Current Population Reports, Series P.23, No. 55. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1975. Table 18, pp. 106-107, and unpublished Census data.

nonmetropolitan males. For females in 1974, metropolitan and nonmetropolitan participation was 46.3 and 42.8 percent, respectively.

A third factor influencing the size of the income gap is the percentage of the population 65 years of age or older, because families headed by a person in this age group tend to have lower incomes than their younger counterparts. In 1974, 11.4 percent of the nonmetropolitan population was 65 or older, compared with 9.2 percent in metropolitan areas.

As indicated earlier, nonmetropolitan areas have experienced a significant decline in poverty. The number of nonmetropolitan families living below the poverty line fell from 2.5 million in 1970 to approximately 2.2 million in 1975. The number of poor metropolitan families showed the opposite trend, increasing from 2.7 million to 3.2 million over the period. This translates to 12.1 percent of nonmetropolitan families being in poverty in 1975, compared with 8.5 percent metropolitan.

Further analysis of the available data reveals that the percentage of the Nation's poor families who reside in nonmetropolitan areas declined substantially during 1970-75. In 1970, 49.1 percent of poor families lived in nonmetropolitan areas, while by 1975 the proportion had declined to 40.9 percent.

Regional analysis of poverty data reveals that, for the North and West (taken together), the number of metropolitan poor families increased by 12.5 percent from 1970 to 1974, while the number of nonmetropolitan poor families

fell by 26.8 percent (table 3). The dramatic rise in the number of poor among metropolitan residents in this area can be basically attributed to the 1971 recession. The impact of this recession was felt more heavily in metropolitan areas because it affected urban-oriented industries in Northern regions and was not a Southern phenomenon. The decrease in nonmetropolitan poor families, then, is caused by the relative stability of the Southern economy during the recession and by a statistical component which indicates that the South is dominant in the nonmetropolitan population.

In the Southern region, the number of poor families in metropolitan areas declined slightly--2.4 percent--during 1970-74, while the number of nonmetropolitan poor families declined by 16.7 percent.

Twenty-three percent of the Nation's black and other minority families lived in nonmetropolitan areas in 1974, and they are more likely to be poor than are the comparable families in metropolitan areas. For example, in 1974, 37.4 percent of nonmetropolitan minority families were poor, compared with 25.0 percent in metropolitan areas. However, minorities who are poor account for a smaller percentage of the total poor population in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas. In 1974, 23.1 percent of the nonmetropolitan poor were minority families vs. 34.5 percent in metropolitan areas.

Each year from 1970 to 1974 the Bureau of the Census reported that families headed by women became an increasing proportion of all poor families so that by 1975, 44.5 percent of all poor families were headed by a female, compared with 37 percent in 1970. This proportional increase was caused by a decline in the number of poor families headed by men along with an increase in the number of poor families headed by women. Although the number of poor, female-headed families rose between 1970 and 1975, their poverty rate remained relatively unchanged.

Realized net farm income, which includes all forms of government payments, rose from $14.2 billion in 1970 to $29.9 billion in 1973, the highest level on record. However, by 1975, net farm income had fallen 24.1 percent, to $22.7 billion. An analysis of the components indicates the reasons for the 1975 slide in farm income. Realized gross farm income increased by 4.8 percent, from $92.9 billion in 1973 to $97.4 billion in 1975, while production expenses increased by 15.5 percent over the period, and government payments fell by 69.2 percent, from $2.6 billion in 1973 to $0.8 billion in 1975.

Off-farm income per farm has been steadily increasing since 1970, almost doubling by 1975. Thus, the improvement in economic status among farm families during the 1970-75 period appears to be a function of gains in both farm and off-farm incomes. (See table 4.)

Table 3--Region and residence of families by low-income status, 1970 and 1974

Residence	1974						1970					
	All races		White		Black		All races		White		Black	
	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level
All families												
United States	5,109	9.2	3,482	7.0	1,530	27.8	5,214	10.0	3,701	8.0	1,445	29.3
Metropolitan	3,073	8.1	1,942	5.9	1,059	25.0	2,654	7.9	1,790	6.1	828	23.1
Nonmetropolitan	2,036	11.3	1,540	9.3	470	37.4	2,561	13.8	1,911	11.2	612	45.9
North and West	2,790	7.4	2,106	6.1	607	22.7	2,837	7.9	2,295	6.9	492	20.6
Metropolitan	2,014	7.3	1,364	5.6	584	22.9	1,791	7.1	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Nonmetropolitan	766	7.7	742	7.5	23	18.7	1,046	9.8	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
South	2,319	12.8	1,376	9.1	922	32.6	2,376	14.8	1,406	10.5	953	37.5
Metropolitan	1,058	10.4	577	6.9	476	28.1	862	10.6	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Nonmetropolitan	1,261	15.9	799	11.9	447	39.4	1,514	19.2	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Families with male heads												
United States	2,757	5.7	2,185	4.9	506	14.2	3,280	7.1	2,604	6.2	625	18.3
Metropolitan	1,362	4.2	1,044	3.6	268	10.0	1,420	4.8	1,115	4.2	272	11.1
Nonmetropolitan	1,395	8.7	1,141	7.5	238	27.0	1,862	11.2	1,489	9.5	356	36.5
North and West	1,389	4.2	1,189	3.9	148	8.8	1,714	5.4	1,529	5.1	150	9.3
South	1,369	8.7	996	7.3	358	19.1	1,566	11.1	1,075	8.8	475	26.5

Continued

Table 3--Region and residence of families by low-income status, 1970 and 1974--Continued

Residence	1974						1970					
	All races		White		Black		All races		White		Black	
	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level	No. below low-income level (000)	Percent below low-income level
Families with female head												
United States	2,351	32	1,297	24.9	1,024	52.8	1,934	32.5	1,097	25.0	820	54.4
Metropolitan	1,710	31.9	898	24.1	792	50.6	1,236	29.8	675	22.7	556	48.9
Nonmetropolitan	641	34.2	400	27.0	231	61.8	697	38.4	422	29.8	261	70.5
North and West	1,401	29.2	917	24.5	459	46.6	1,126	28.2	767	24.1	342	44.6
South	950	38.9	380	25.8	565	59.2	808	41.4	330	27.3	478	64.9

Sources: 1970 Data--U.S. Bureau of the Census. Characteristics of the Low-Income Population, 1970," Current Population Reports, Series P-60, No. 81. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1971. Table D, p. 5 and Tables 11 and 12, pp. 61-64.

1974 Data--U.S. Bureau of the Census. "Characteristics of the Population Below the Poverty Level: 1974," Current Population Reports, Series P-60, No. 102. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1976. Table 18, p. 81.

Table 4--Income per farm operator family by major source, 1970-75

Year	Realized net income	Off-farm income	Total income	Off-farm income as a percent of total income
	Dollars			Percent
1970.....	4,788	5,874	10,662	55.1
1971.....	4,550	6,456	11,006	58.7
1972.....	6,204	7,160	13,364	53.6
1973.....	10,529	8,335	18,864	44.2
1974.....	9,826	9,329	19,155	48.7
1975.....	8,079	10,129	18,208	55.6

POPULATION

Goal

The national rural development population goal is to:

> Support a "balance" between rural and metropolitan populations compatible with the overall national quality of life and economic health.

Status Indicators

*From 1970 to 1975, 1.8 million more people moved into nonmetropolitan counties of the United States than moved out. By contrast, there was a 3.0 million net loss by migration from these counties during 1960-70.

*The nonmetropolitan population increased from 54.4 million in 1970 to 58.0 million in 1975, a gain of 6.6 percent. Metropolitan areas increased in population by 4.1 percent.

Discussion

In the last 2 or 3 years it has become widely understood that there has been a reversal in the former trend of rapid growth of metropolitan population and decline or stagnation of rural and small town areas. The Third Annual Report cited data on this subject for 1970-74. As the status indicators above show, it is now possible to state that the trend continued through 1975.

Augmented by net inmigration of 1.8 million people, the nonmetropolitan population continued to grow more rapidly than the metropolitan population (table 1). The 58.0 million nonmetropolitan population, which is the main focus of rural development efforts, now amounts to 27 percent of the total population.

As a class, metropolitan areas are not zones of population exodus, because they still receive some net immigration from abroad, but this is minor compared with the large streams of rural migrants that they received in the past.

Something over half of the increase in nonmetropolitan people went into counties that are adjacent to a metropolitan area. Certain of these counties will gradually become metropolitan in character and economic dependence as people move in and commuting to the urbanized area increases. But the reversal of growth is particularly impressive in the nonmetropolitan counties that are not adjacent to a metropolitan area. Here, too, in more remote locations, there is net inmovement of people after several decades of rapid outmigration.

NOTE: This paper was prepared in the Economic Development Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

Table 1--U.S. population change by residence, 1970-75

Residence	Population			Net migration	
	1975	1970 1/	Pct. change, 1970-75	1970-75	1960-70
	Thou.	Thou.	Pct.	Thou.	Thou.
Total	213,053	203,305	4.8	2,466	3,001
Metropolitan 2/	155,037	148,881	4.1	625	5,997
Nonmetropolitan	58,016	54,424	6.6	1,841	-2,996
Adjacent counties 3/	30,156	28,070	7.4	1,127	-724
Nonadjacent counties	27,860	26,354	5.7	713	-2,273

1/ Reflects officially recognized changes to census counts through 1976.
2/ Metropolitan status as of 1974.
3/ Nonmetropolitan counties adjacent to Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas.

Source: Current Population Reports, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

The estimates are not precise enough to say definitively whether the pace of the reversal is changing as the decade progresses. There is a suggestion in the 1975 figures that the nonmetropolitan population did not outgrow the metropolitan population from 1974 to 1975 at quite the same pace that prevailed from 1970 to 1974, but this cannot be said with assurance. One unusual aspect of the period from July 1974 to July 1975 was the sharp economic recession during the winter and spring. Unemployment rose more in the nonmetropolitan counties than it did in the more urban areas, as certain rural and small town industries proved vulnerable--such as lumber, manufactured housing, mobile homes, recreational vehicles, and automotive textiles. Conceivably this could have retarded that part of the flow of people into nonmetropolitan areas that is associated with employment opportunities. Subsequently, in the summer of 1975, employment recovered more quickly in the rural and small town communities than it did in metropolitan areas.

It has been noted in earlier reports that retirement is a strong element of nonmetropolitan population growth. This trend has continued. Most people do not move when they retire, but those who do so go disproportionately to rural and small town settings, especially those associated with lakes, sea coasts, or warm climates. It is expected that the future growth of the number of people who have good retirement incomes and who retire at an early age will continue to add to the number of late middle-aged and older people who move to small communities.

Retirement was also a factor in nonmetropolitan growth in the 1960's; the trend in the 1970's is merely a heightening of an earlier development. But two other factors that were associated with nonmetropolitan population growth in the 1960's have essentially ceased to operate since then. During that decade, nonmetropolitan population growth was closely linked to density of population and income. Counties with some density of people--usually those that already had a small city--acquired more people, whereas those that were sparsely settled experienced outmigration and population decline. Since 1970, there has been almost no connection between the density of people in a nonmetropolitan county and its growth rate. In fact, the most sparsely settled counties--those with fewer than 10 people per square mile--have had a somewhat higher growth rate than any other class.

Similarly, migrants gravitated toward higher income counties in the 1960's. The low and moderate income nonmetropolitan counties had outmigration as a class. Since 1970, this association has weakened to the point of insignificance. Although everyone needs a source of income, nonpecuniary considerations seem to have loomed much larger since 1970 in the choice of a place in which to live. Basically, three types of areas can be identified in which outmigration is greater than inmigration. These are (1) highly agricultural counties that still do not have many other sources of employment, (2) counties with a comparatively high percentage of black population, from which outmigration is still occurring, and (3) counties heavily dependent on military bases. But these types of counties do not have a major part of the nonmetropolitan population today, and--except for the military counties--are having much less outmovement than was true in the recent past.

A further point that is important to an understanding of the new demographic trend is the fact that it is basically a revival of open country and village settlement. Although statistical data are limited, it appears that nonmetropolitan cities are not having increased population growth. (Such places can range in size from 2,500 people up to 49,999 population.) As a class the nonmetropolitan cities are still growing, but without acceleration. Increasingly, the population is dispersing out into the countryside or into the small villages that have lost some of their business functions but are having renewed residential vitality. This countryside and village population may relate to the nonmetropolitan cities for employment or goods and services, but is largely beyond the ability of the cities to recover through annexation. In a sense some of the nonmetropolitan cities are experiencing the same loss of middle- and upper-income level citizens from their municipal limits as are the great metropolises.

Even in areas where no net population growth is occuring, a dispersal trend into the countryside is reported. One enabling factor is the widespread construction of rural water systems in the last 10 years. Where piped water of good quality and reliable availability is present, population is attracted, even if there was no intention to have such an effect when the system was planned. Thus a pattern of settlement is evolving which seems to add to the degree of satisfaction that the public has with its places of residence. But the trend clearly has ultimate ramifications for such matters as fuel consumption, land prices, rural zoning, and the nonagricultural use of agricultural-quality land.

Viewed in the context of the heavy outmigration that took place from many rural communities from 1940 to 1970, the trend since 1970 would have to be considered as generally beneficial. The process of partial rural depopulation occurred from very compelling reasons and was a rational response to rural poverty, declining rural job opportunities, and the superior living and working conditions available in the cities. But it badly distorted the age composition of the remaining rural population--being selective of young adults--and often syphoned off the better educated. Many social and business institutions were disrupted by the decline in population and the tax load for public services had to be distributed over a smaller number of people. Furthermore, although the cities received millions of good workers from the rural areas who fitted easily into the urban economy, they also received millions who were poorly equipped by any standard and who added to the dominant urban problems of welfare dependence, unemployment, and crime.

The renewed growth of nonmetropolitan population since 1970 is uneven in location and extent. A number of counties are increasing so rapidly that they are experiencing problems of excessive growth. This is quite common in the Florida Peninsula, the Ozarks, Northern Michigan, or the Pacific Southwest.

From 1970 to 1974, there were 300 nonmetropolitan counties that increased in population by 15 percent or more. This is more than 3 percent annually compounded. Such a rate is essentially impossible for a community to sustain efficiently and esthetically over a period of years. It results in problems of growth that are too rapid for the local governments to cope with or that impair the very attributes of charm, small-scale setting, scenicness, safety, low-keyed pace, or air and water quality that attracted people in the first place. Communities experiencing such growth often feel as frustrated in efforts to cope with it or retard it as declining communities do in their attempts to halt decline.

Despite the overall growth of nonmetropolitan population, about 630 counties declined in population from 1970 to 1975 because of outmigration. In a majority of cases, the loss was a continuation of a process that had been going on for one, two, or even three decades. In other instances it resulted from a newer economic problem, such as the closing of a military base or the loss of a key factory.

Thus the overall pattern of renewed retention and growth of population in nonmetropolitan areas conceals a great deal of internal variation. Growth of a moderate, absorbable, and beneficial nature has come to hundreds of rural and small town communities. But large numbers of others have either yet to see their depopulation reversed or else have swung to equally troublesome excesses of growth. Much has been achieved toward a goal of creating living and working conditions in rural and small town areas that permit them to absorb the equivalent of their natural increase of population and to play a larger role in the settlement pattern of the United States. But the events of the last 5 years do not mean that all population-related problems of such areas are solved or that the new growth is entirely beneficial and free of unintended consequences.

HOUSING

Goal

The national rural development housing goal is to:

> Facilitate the attainment of access to standard quality housing in rural areas equal to that in metropolitan areas.

Status Indicators

The most recently available national data on housing in nonmetropolitan areas show that:

* Homeownership increased more rapidly in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas during 1970-74, according to Annual Housing Survey data. The percentage of occupied units that were owned by the occupants rose from 70.4 percent to 72.6 percent in nonmetropolitan areas, compared with 59.5 percent to 61.0 percent in metropolitan areas.

* The more rapid increase in homeownership in nonmetropolitan areas is due to a greater increase in mobile homes in these areas. Data from the 1973 Annual Housing Survey show that such homes, which are almost exclusively owner occupied, are being purchased by a wider range of income groups than in the past; 55 percent of nonmetropolitan people buying mobile homes in 1972 had incomes over $9,000.

* The number of occupied substandard homes in nonmetropolitan areas declined from 2.9 million units in 1970 to 2.1 million in 1974, about equal to the decline in metropolitan areas. 1/ While about 33 percent of the Nation's housing stock is in nonmetropolitan areas, approximately 56 percent of the substandard housing is located there-about the same share that has prevailed since 1960.

* In 1974, 10 percent of occupied nonmetropolitan housing was substandard, compared with 15 percent in 1970. In metropolitan areas, comparable figures are 3 percent for 1974 and 5 percent for 1970. Nationwide, 5 percent of occupied housing was substandard in 1974, compared with 8 percent in 1970. 2/

Discussion

Prior to 1970, the percentage of the Nation's housing stock located in metropolitan areas was continually rising. Since 1970, there has been a slight

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NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Economic Development Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

1/ ERS estimate based on Census Bureau's Annual Housing Survey data. Revised from estimate in Third Rural Development Goals Report.

2/ ERS estimates based on Census Bureau's Annual Housing Survey data.

shift favoring nonmetropolitan areas. About 32.6 percent of the housing stock was in nonmetropolitan areas in 1970 and by 1974 about 33 percent was located there. The percentage shift in occupied units--or households--was more pronounced. The number of households in nonmetropolitan areas rose 14.1 percent over the 5 years, compared with 12.5 percent in metropolitan areas.

Each year from 1970 through 1975 there were more housing units built (includes mobile home shipments) per 1,000 households in nonmetropolitan than in metropolitan areas. The average for the 5-year period was 32.9 per 1,000 households in nonmetropolitan areas, compared with 29.2 in metropolitan areas. Since 1970, annual new housing construction has exceeded net household formations by about 50,000 units a year in nonmetropolitan areas. In these areas, about 665,000 units were built annually from 1970 to 1975. And even for the year 1975, which was regarded as a poor housing year, about 500,000 units were built. For the year 1976, a projected 600,000 units were to be built in nonmetropolitan areas.

The increased nonmetropolitan use of mobile homes is one of the major reasons the data show more housing units per 1,000 households built in nonmetropolitan than metropolitan areas from 1970 to 1975. More than 60 percent of the mobile homes manufactured in the United States during this 5-year period are located in nonmetropolitan areas. About 32 percent of the new homes built in nonmetropolitan areas during the period were mobile homes.

At the same time nonmetropolitan housing growth was occurring, housing conditions were improving rapidly in nonmetropolitan areas. The number of occupied substandard homes declined by 800,000 from 1970 to 1974, according to ERS estimates. Crowding as a measure of inadequate housing also declined dramatically in nonmetropolitan areas. Annual Housing Survey data show that moderate crowding (1.01 to 1.50 persons per room) declined over 28 percent, while severe crowding (1.51 persons or more) dropped nearly 38 percent. Crowding in metropolitan areas declined at a slightly lower rate.

The rapid improvement in nonmetropolitan housing conditions has been brought about by improvement in existing units as well as rapid expansion in the number of new units, especially mobile homes. These homes have been largely responsible for the improvement in the housing conditions of young households--those headed by a person under 35 years of age.

Despite the improvement in nonmetropolitan housing, there were more than 2 million households in substandard housing in late 1974. Certain groups occupy a disproportionate share of the bad housing--mainly blacks, the aged, and the poor.

Annual Housing Survey data show that blacks occupied 27 percent of the bad housing in 1974 but represented only 7 percent of the total households in nonmetropolitan areas. About 35 percent of their housing lacked complete plumbing, compared with 7 percent of the housing occupied by the whites. Blacks occupied about the same percentage of bad housing in nonmetropolitan areas in 1974 as they did in 1970. Therefore, it appears housing occupied by blacks is improving about as rapidly as it is for whites.

The aged are continuing to occupy a disproportionate share of the bad housing in nonmetropolitan areas. In 1973, as in 1970, households with heads over 64 years of age occupied 33 percent of the housing that lacked complete plumbing, but they resided in only 23 percent of the units. Low income rather than age by itself is a major reason for this situation occurring. When incomes were held constant, it was found that nearly the same proportions of old and young households were in bad housing. But, since older households have relatively lower incomes, they occupy more bad housing.

In 1974 as in 1970, the poor were the major occupants of bad housing in nonmetropolitan areas. After adjustments are made for changes in the purchasing power of the dollar since 1970, data show that households with incomes of less than $5,000 a year occupied two-thirds of the housing lacking complete plumbing in 1974, the same share as in 1970. During this same time period, the proportion of the total households with incomes this low declined from 29 to 26 percent. Since the proportion of substandard housing occupied by the poor in nonmetropolitan areas remained fairly constant, it appears housing for the poor is improving about as rapidly as it is for the higher income groups.

As indicated earlier, an increasingly larger percentage of the American people are owning the homes they occupy. In 1974, 64.6 percent of the Nation's households were in this group, compared with 55.0 percent in 1950, 61.9 percent in 1960, and 62.9 percent in 1970. The increase in homeownership was more rapid in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas.

The 1970-74 rise in homeownership--which is considered an indicator of economic well-being in this country--came at a time when changes in income-price relationships suggested that homeownership should have become less attractive, in nonmetropolitan areas as well as nationally. Based upon data for conventional single-family homes (excludes condominiums and mobile homes), housing prices increased about twice as fast as household incomes in both nonmetropolitan and metropolitan areas. Rents, on the other hand, increased only at about the rate of increase for household incomes. Despite these income-price relationships, which should have priced more buyers-for-occupancy out of the market, more buyers entered the market and the proportion of households that became owner-occupants continued to rise.

Several factors most likely explain this apparently inconsistent market behavior. The primary factor may be the growing popularity of mobile homes and condominiums, both of which provided ownership alternatives to buying conventional single unit homes. As stated previously, the census price data that are normally pointed to for changes in housing values reflect only the changes in the value of the conventional units. However, the data on ownership increases included data for mobile homes and condominiums. If the value of condominiums and, especially, mobile home units were included in the price data, the rise in the median price of all houses would be lower, particularly in nonmetropolitan areas. The income-price relationships would thus be more in line, and housing market behavior would appear less inconsistent.

A second factor partly explaining the rise in homeownership at a time of apparently unfavorable income-price relationships is the rapidly inflating housing values since 1970 which are causing many families to benefit from

appreciation in the value of their homes. This makes possible sequential home ownership even for units priced well above what otherwise would have been the affordable income of movers selling one unit and buying another. The growing number of retired persons are an important component of this group.

Housing construction in the United States is mainly a private sector activity. Governmental help has been mainly in the form of making credit more readily available through insured or guaranteed loans to private citizens or groups to improve their housing. The extent of this credit help has varied from decade to decade. During the 1950's, the Government helped in the construction of about 30 percent of the units built in nonmetropolitan areas, during the 1960's about 19 percent, and during the early part of the 1970's about 26 percent. 3/ The vast majority of housing has been built or improved by private citizens without direct governmental assistance. Hence, the availability of private credit plays a vital role in determining how many homes are built or improved in the United States.

Housing loans made by banks and other lending institutions and insured or guaranteed by the Federal Housing Administration or the Veterans Administration were the most common type of Federal help to nonmetropolitan households during the 1950's and 1960's. USDA's Farmers Home Administration (FmHA) became the major insurer of loans in nonmetropolitan areas during the 1970's.

The role of the Farmers Home Administration has changed markedly in the past 25 years. During the 1950's, when FmHA could make loans only to farmers to improve their housing, the agency helped in the construction of about 2,000 units annually. During the 1960's, their program was expanded to include rural nonfarm households in open country and places and towns of less than 5,500 population, and they helped in the construction of about 16,000 homes annually. In 1972, the agency was authorized to make loans to rural nonfarm households in communities of up to 10,000 population. Later, under agreement with HUD, the agency began to make loans in communities of 10,000 to 20,000 population in areas with mortgage credit shortages outside of metropolitan areas. During the 1970's, with this increased lending authority and with the adoption of the interest subsidy program, FmHA is helping in the construction of about 75,000 homes annually. Current programs include many types of loans, such as ownership loans, loans to construct rental housing, farm labor housing loans, and home improvement and repair loans.

3/ Based on data from FmHA "Housing Completions" reports, annual surveys of the Census Bureau, and Department of Commerce and Housing and Urban Development construction reports.

COMMUNITY SERVICES AND FACILITIES

Goal

The national rural development goal for community services and facilities is to:

> Aid local governments and other entities to provide access to adequate community services and facilities in rural areas.

Status Indicators

It is not appropriate or feasible to present one or two quantitative status indicators to illustrate whether there has been progress in the overall community services and facilities goal area because of the variety of services and facilities involved in meeting essential needs of rural residents. Eight categories of service--health care, education, water and sewer services, solid waste management, public passenger transportation, transportation infrastructure, fire prevention and control, and law enforcement--plus four community service target populations--the handicapped, the elderly, social security beneficiaries, families receiving Aid to Families With Dependent Children--are discussed, with national data given wherever possible.

It should be noted here that in one of the subcategories of community services--health care--a national rural goal has been developed by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in consultation with the Department of Agriculture. This goal appears in the Health Care section beginning on the following page.

HEALTH CARE

The following national rural health goal was developed by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in consultation with the Department of Agriculture: 1/

> To promote the improvement of and equal access to quality comprehensive health care services (primary, preventive, and emergency medical services) for the population residing in all rural areas of the United States and its territories.

The intent of the health section of the report this year is to provide a current profile of factors affecting health care, organized in such a manner that relevant questions may be formulated, or policy issues discerned more readily. As HEW has demonstrated in its Rural Health Initiative (see p.71 of this report) and in its Forward Plan for Health, FY 1977-81, it is necessary for decisionmakers, analysts, and others to move beyond the stereotyped response that maldistribution of physicians and the high cost of health care are the greatest rural health problems. These are important symptoms of the real problems. Various groups of health analysts have formulated these basic problems. They may be categorized as follows:

Problems adversely affecting use of the health care system by the rural population:

1. Less access--relative to urban areas--to health care due to maldistribution of health manpower, facilities, and services.

2. Defects in benefit and reimbursement formulas.

3. Barriers to health care, including geographic and transportation barriers.

Problems adversely affecting health status of the rural population:

4. Environmental conditions, including inadequate treatment of household waste water and water runoff from feedlots and fields which contain heavy applications of chemicals. Another factor is persistent occupational hazards.

NOTE: This paper was prepared in the Economic Development Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

1/ This goal was developed in late 1976 by HEW's Rural Health Coordinating Committee, whose membership includes USDA representation. The goal was developed in response to requirements of the National Health Planning and Resources Development Act of 1974 and the National Consumer Health Information and Health Promotion Act of 1976, and in response to the intent of the Rural Development Act of 1972.

5. As in urban areas, lack of acceptance of the relationship between life style and level of health. Factors affecting health include quality of diet, exercise level, intake of alcohol, and smoking.

Problems adversely affecting implementation of existing programs, and innovative approaches to health care delivery:

6. Deterrents to rural participation in health care planning due to time and transportation problems, lack of interest, and lack of knowledge of health options available.

7. Proliferation of projects at all levels of government and in the private sector with little coordination or cooperation between them accompanied by frequent changes in procedures and objectives.

Discussion

There are many existing health programs, such as the National Health Service Corps, which address problems 1, 3, and 4 and some significant efforts are being made to overcome parts of problem 7, including the work of HEW's Rural Health Coordinating Committee. These programs have resulted from Congressional and Executive Branch actions over the past few years, covering medical personnel, health planning and delivery, environmental and occupational hazards, and transportation deficiencies. The individual projects will require time to be implemented and evaluated. And they will not be able to do the whole job. Others--community groups, foundations, business, and labor--will have to continue to work on these problems.

Problems 2, 5, and 6 are the ones on which attention now needs to be concentrated. These are discussed below.

Problem 2: Defects in benefit and reimbursement formulas resulting in counter-productive utilization, cost, and manpower patterns. 2/

The benefit and reimbursement formulas characteristic of medicare and most private insurance plans are producing unfortunate results. Often the more economical forms of treatment are not covered by a program or insurance policy, so that more expensive treatment such as hospitalization is selected. In many cases, services performed in certain facilities or by certain personnel are not covered so that the new more efficient methods of health care delivery are not used. Urban/rural reimbursement differentials currently in force are another aspect of the problem.

2/ References numbered 1 through 5 cited on p. 30 were used in preparation of this discussion.

There is no simple, universal way to solve all these problems. Some will need Congressional action. Others can be corrected by changes in Executive Branch regulations and guidelines. Still others will require action by State legislatures or health licensing and inspecting departments. HEW is sponsoring a number of projects to determine the best way to solve some of these difficulties. A great deal can be done and is already being done by industry, labor, and the insurance companies by rewriting existing group and individual insurance policies to change benefits covered and reimbursement formulas for hospitals and other health delivery facilities.

In accordance with the terms of authorizing legislation, many projects are funded for a limited number of years, at the end of which time they are expected to have become self-sustaining or have developed other sources of funding.

Problem 5: Lack of knowledge about relation of life style to health. 3/

In the judgment of most experts, adjustment in life style is the variable that offers the greatest potential for improving the health status of the population. Advocates emphasize that the leading causes of death in the United States are heart disease, cancer, stroke, and accidents. Together they account for nearly three-fourths of all deaths. Many instances of these diseases could be avoided or delayed if people accepted the health-related consequences of their life style or could be motivated to take the proper action when symptoms first appeared. The National Consumer Health Information and Promotion Act (P.L. 94-317) was passed in mid-1976, and the Office of Health Information and Health Promotion is being established in HEW to provide services and technical assistance in this field.

In addition, this phase of comprehensive health planning needs to be emphasized in the Health Systems Plans (5-year plans) and the Annual Implementation Plans that the New Health Services Agencies are required by P.L. 93-641 to prepare. For 1977, HEW guidelines for these plans require that, while all phases of health must be considered, emphasis should be placed not only on health care, but more specifically on diagnosis and treatment services. HEW in its guidelines has made plain that prevention is of great importance. USDA's view is that as soon as possible emphasis should be shifted to the educational and preventive phase of health planning. For a long time, health foundations for special diseases, such as cancer, have conducted educational programs. Recently, TV programs have been taking an interest both in documentaries and in short spots during newsbroadcasts. In addition, new telecommunication techniques using cassettes and other devices have made it much easier and cheaper to provide this information to wider audiences. Much can and should be done by concerned citizens, foundations, and government officials working together to disseminate information to rural areas and to provide them with the technical assistance they need to reach and inform rural residents.

3/ References numbered 6 through 10 cited on p. 30 were used in preparation of this discussion.

Problem 6: Deterrents to rural participation in planning.

Community participation is an important ingredient for success of a rural health project. But, if citizens are to get involved, they need orientation as to their role, encouragement so that they believe their participation really matters, an understanding of the options available to them in making decisions, and a process of decisionmaking that not only permits their participation but makes their input meaningful.

One area where rural participation can be vital to the solution of rural health problems is in the formulation of the Health Systems Plans (HSP) and Annual Implementation Plans (AIP) and in the execution of the other duties of Health Systems Agencies mandated by P.L. 93-641. Currently the HSA's are in the formative stage and are tackling the problems or potential problems discussed below, a process that HEW is monitoring.

The act provides for rural participation by requiring the governing body to be representative of the population, by providing for subarea councils, and by requiring State agencies to defend their decisions when they overturn an HSA recommendation. Thus, the mechanisms for rural planning are available. In practice, meaningful rural participation may be difficult to achieve, even though out-of-pocket expenses are to be reimbursed, since there is a lengthy time factor involved in driving to meetings in many regions of the country.

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EDUCATION

Status Indicators

*No matter what indices, testing systems, or assessment programs are employed, researchers have found that rural schoolchildren consistently rank lower than their urban counterparts. While there has been some absolute improvement in recent years, the performance gap between urban and rural students has not significantly narrowed. 1/

*In 1970, Census data show that there were 500,000 rural adults who had had no schooling whatsoever. 2/

*In 1974, a Census Bureau survey found that over 2 million rural adults--8 percent of the rural adult population--had had less than 5 years of schooling and thus were considered to be functionally illiterate. Nationally, 5.3 percent of adults are in this category.

*At least 5.3 percent of all rural school-aged children are not enrolled in any school. This represents a nonenrollment rate nearly twice that of urban areas. 3/

*In 1970, 24.1 percent of all Black adults and 30.7 percent of all Hispanic adults in rural areas had dropped out of school by the fifth grade according to Census reports.

*In 1970-71, per pupil expenditures in nonmetropolitan areas were $702.72, compared with $851.97 in the central cities of metropolitan areas, according to the National Center for Education Statistics (HEW).

NOTE: This paper was prepared by Jonathan P. Sher, consultant to HEW's National Institute of Education and Office of Rural Development.

1/See for example: James S. Coleman, et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity (Wash., D.C.: U.S. Dept. Health, Educ., and Welfare, U.S. Off. Educ., OE-38001, 1966); W. Vance Grant and C. George Und, Digest of Educational Statistics: 1974 Edition (Wash., D.C.: Nat. Ctr. for Educ. Stat., U.S. Dept. Health, Educ., and Welfare, 1975); Lewis R. Tamplyn, Inequality: A Portrait of Rural America (Wash., D.C.: Rural Education Assoc. 1973).

2/Rural here and in the following three status indicators is defined as open countryside and places of less than 2,500 population. This is the Census Bureau definition of rural. Hereafter in this discussion on education, this definition is intended unless the word nonmetropolitan is used.

3/Marian Wright Edelman, Marylee Allen, Cindy Brown, Ann Rosewater, et al. Children Out of School in America (Cambridge, Mass.: Children's Defense Fund, 1974), p. 37.

Discussion

Introduction. In an era when urban problems by their very concentration capture the bulk of the public eye, the size and diversity of rural education may surprise many. More than 14 million students are dispersed among over 10,000 independent rural school districts. And this range and diversity exists after nearly a century of deliberate policies to consolidate rural schools into units which were large enough to adopt urban educational standards urban innovations, urban curricula, and urban-trained teachers. Since there are physical limits to consolidation which have nearly been reached, and the limitations of the urban schooling model are becoming more apparent, numerous professionals are reconsidering the value of small schools, particularly the noncognitive benefits long associated with them (for example, sense of belonging, ability to participate, and the close relationship possible among students and faculty, or between the school and the community). As these values are pursued by the larger, more bureaucratic urban schools, there may well be a reversal of the historic policies affecting rural schools.

Professional Concern. At present the educational profession generally does not distinguish between rural and nonrural educational concerns and as a whole devotes little attention to this matter. There is no Bureau or Division of Rural Education in the U.S. Office of Education, the National Institute of Education, or the great majority of State Education Agencies. The National Education Association devotes only one-eighth of one individual's time to rural educational concerns. The National Center for Education Statistics doesn't issue reports or compile data on the current status of rural education. And a recent study 4/ indicates that there are only six institutions of higher education in the country which provide teacher training of even marginal relevance to the unique strengths and weaknesses of rural education.

Educational Attainment. While the statistics cited initially are true, it is inaccurate to portray rural schools strictly in negative terms. Among the very diverse rural systems are many rural schools which compare favorably in terms of educational quality with their larger and wealthier urban and suburban counterparts. The broad statistics mask these successes, and tend to divert researchers from studying the characteristics of outstanding small schools. In addition, lower levels of educational attainment among rural children are only partially determined by the effectiveness of rural schools. Lower educational attainment among rural parents has also been shown to be a factor affecting the achievement of rural children.

Financial Resources. Rural communities tend to be quite poor in terms of both property wealth and income compared to urban and suburban ones, and are often unable to finance schools adequately from local sources. A recent study 5/ of school finance in 13 States across the country indicates the extreme financial disadvantage of rural areas. In all 13 States, rural areas had the lowest amount of per pupil expenditures proportionate to their State and local

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4/Ivan Muse, Robert Parson, and Edward Hoppe, Rural Teachers (Salt Lake City, Utah: Brigham Young Univ., 1975).

5/Joel S. Berke, Answers to Inequity (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Pub. Co., 1974), p.95.

revenue efforts.

However, generating revenue is not the only difficulty. Census-defined rural areas, because of their inherent sparsity of population, often have additional financial burdens in transportation and high pupil costs for specialized educational programs. State-level school finance reforms and expanded State aid programs have tended to benefit rural school districts. However, Federal assistance has remained disproportionately low. HEW testimony before the Senate Subcommittee on Rural Development revealed that, even though nearly one-third of the Nation's school children and one-half of the Nation's poor families live in nonmetropolitan areas, only 11 percent of library and materials funds, 13 percent of basic vocational aid, 14 percent of guaranteed student loan monies, 8 percent of migrant education aid, 13 percent of dropout prevention funds, and 20 percent of bilingual education monies went to nonmetropolitan areas. 6/

Vocational Resources. Vocational training is provided in rural high schools and also in junior colleges, which increasingly are locating in rural areas. And, the vocational curricula of these institutions is becoming more suited to the demands of modern society. For example, many junior colleges offer extensive training in various allied health fields such as nursing and dental hygiene. 7/ More traditional training in mechanics and business are also widely offered. Moreover, opportunities to apply these skills in gainful employment are also expanding in rural communities so that graduates have a greater opportunity than in the past to remain in rural areas. However, it should be noted that vocational agriculture remains the focus of training in many smaller rural high schools (while not a growing field, employment in agriculture has stabilized in the 1970's).

Promising Development. The past decade has witnessed the advent of several educational trends and reforms which impart a sense of hope for the future. Among these promising developments are the creation of multidistrict educational service agencies, which allow small rural schools to gain specialized programs, services, and materials without consolidation; the growth of the community college movement in rural areas, which has given a broad cross-section of rural citizens their first ready access to higher education; and the emergence of several rural school improvement projects which directly confront the great diversity of educational needs, goals, and conditions found in America's broad spectrum of rural communities.

Whether these new developments will retain a uniquely rural orientation instead of trying to imitate urban models, is still an open question. However, if they are successful, their potential for being of genuine assistance to rural schools and rural communities is enormous. Some of the new initiatives and trends in rural education are discussed in Part II, beginning on page 78.

6/U.S. Congress (Senate), Subcommittee on Rural Development, HEW Programs for Rural America, Committee Print (Wash., D.C.: U.S. Gov. Print. Off., 1975), pp. 36-61.

7/Appalachia, A Journal of the Appalachian Regional Commission, Vol. 9, No. 4, Feb. - Mar. 1976, pp. 10-19.

WATER AND SEWER SERVICES

Status Indicator

*In October 1974, 63.7 percent of all year-round housing units in non-metropolitan areas were on public water systems and 48.0 percent were served by public sewer systems. Similar figures for metropolitan areas show 91.8 percent of all year-round housing units served by public water systems, and 83.8 percent by public sewers. 1/ This statement, however, should not be interpreted as implying that the goal for public water and sewer systems in rural areas is 100 percent. This point is explored below.

Discussion

For centuries, men have generally believed that public water and sewer systems delivered better services than private (individual) systems. But few people have taken the time to determine whether this assumption is correct. Thus, many people still equate public systems with quality, and knowledgeable people frequently argue that communities must be served by public (central) water and sewer systems to have safe and adequate services.

This assertion, of course, may or may not be true. The mere presence of centralized water or sewer services guarantees nothing. Water systems are adequate only if the water entering the mains is clean and potable. The mains must also have adequate capacity, among other thi gs. Similarly, central sewer systems are considered adequate only if the lines will accept and transport all the sewage people wish to discharge into them. Some people go even further and assume that the treatment plants at the end of the lines must also be adequate. Furthermore, a central system can be considered superior to a set of individual systems only if a superior level of service is delivered at or below the cost of the private systems commonly found in the immediate area.

In some rural areas where homes and businesses are widely dispersed, a centralized water or sewer facility may not do a better job at a lower price. Therefore, there is no reason to assume, per se, that the whole country should

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NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Economic Development Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

1/ A "public water system" (Census Bureau definition) is a public or private company supplying water from a common source to 6 or more housing units. The water may be supplied by a city, county, water district, or private water company, or it may be obtained from a well which supplies 6 or more housing units. If a well provides water for 5 or fewer housing units, it is classified as an "individual well."

A "public sewer" is a city, county, sanitary district, neighborhood, or subdivision sewer system. It may be operated by a government body or private organization. A "septic tank or cesspool" is an underground tank or pit used for sewage collection and disposal. Small sewage treatment plants, which in some localities are called neighborhood septic tanks, are classified as public sewers.

be served by public water or sewer lines. In areas with polluted water supplies, or poor drainage, alternatives to the traditional rural well and septic tank must be used to provide "adequate" water and sewer services. This might mean a central system is needed. But again it may not. Thus, the rational way to approach the problem is to determine what level of service is needed and then let the engineers design the least-cost facility that will provide the quantity and quality of service desired or considered necessary.

Given this introduction to the problem, what do the available census figures suggest is happening in rural America today? In 1960, the Census Bureau collected a partial set of water and sewer statistics nationwide. This census was repeated with total coverage in 1970. In 1973, the Census Bureau started a new series, based on a special annual sampling of households. This is part of an expanded effort to attempt to document changing conditions in the existing inventory of all housing units, and to determine what facilities are being installed in new housing. This new series is called the Annual Housing Survey. The survey was repeated in 1974 and 1975, but only the 1973 and 1974 data are currently available. The 1975 results may not be published until some time in 1977.

An analysis of the figures for 1970 and 1974 shows some expected, and some unexpected, variations in the proportions of nonmetropolitan homes served by public systems. For example, the proportions of homes (in both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas) served by either central water or central sewer systems, or both, increased slightly (see table 1). This is not surprising because many communities without central systems still have a need for improved services. As long as this condition exists, the total stock of housing with central water and sewer facilities can be expected to increase if Federal construction assistance is available to help communities develop better systems.

Some unexpected changes, however, have already occurred in two nonmetropolitan regions--the Northeast and the South. In the Northeast, the proportion of homes served by public water systems was down very slightly in 1974, as was the proportion served by public sewer systems. Similarly, the proportion of homes served by public sewers was also very slightly lower in the nonmetropolitan areas of the South in 1974, as is shown below:

All Year-Round Nonmetropolitan Housing Units Having:

Census regions	Public water supplies		Public sewer systems	
	1974	1970	1974	1970
	Percent			
United States	63.7	61.7	48.0	47.9
Northeast	64.3	65.3	47.3	48.5
North Central	61.6	59.8	53.6	52.5
South	61.7	58.5	41.9	42.1
West	74.8	73.7	57.4	56.3

The reasons for the lower proportions in the Northeast and South are unknown. At first it appeared that they might be caused by the significant

Table 1--Availability of Water and Sewer Facilities in Year-round Housing Units, 1970 and 1974

Item	Total Units			Housing with public or private water system 1/					Housing with public sewer 2/				
	1970	1974	1970-74 change	1974		1970		Change	1974		1970		Change
	Thou.			Thou.	Pct.	Thou.	Pct.	Thou.	Thou.	Pct.	Thou.	Pct.	Thou.
U.S.													
All year round													
Metro.	46,079	51,642	5,563	47,409	91.8	41,948	91.0	5,461	43,257	83.8	37,834	82.1	5,423
Nonmetro.	21,615	24,244	2,629	15,434	63.7	13,345	61.7	2,089	11,637	48.0	10,354	47.9	1,283
New construction 3/													
Metro.	5,288	6,561	1,273	6,004	91.5	4,828	91.3	1,176	5,523	84.2	4,430	83.8	1,093
Nonmetro.	2,690	3,316	626	2,075	62.6	1,623	60.3	452	1,363	41.1	1,079	40.1	284
Northeast													
All year round													
Metro.	12,942	13,570	628	12,534	92.4	11,935	92.2	599	11,130	82.0	10,457	80.8	673
Nonmetro.	3,255	3,698	443	2,378	64.3	2,127	65.3	251	1,748	47.3	1,578	48.5	170
New construction 3/													
Metro.	697	855	158	752	88.0	614	88.1	138	670	78.4	536	76.9	134
Nonmetro.	311	375	64	215	57.3	158	50.8	57	132	35.2	112	36.0	20
North Central													
All year round													
Metro.	12,162	13,167	1,005	11,643	88.4	10,629	87.4	1,014	11,280	85.7	10,171	83.6	1,109
Nonmetro.	6,511	7,051	540	4,343	61.6	3,894	59.8	449	3,779	53.6	3,420	52.5	359
New construction 3/													
Metro.	1,157	1,359	202	1,176	86.5	991	85.7	185	1,138	83.7	943	81.5	195
Nonmetro.	562	728	166	432	59.3	304	54.1	128	325	44.6	231	41.1	94

See footnotes at end of table.

Continued--

Table 3--Availability of Water and Sewer Facilities in Year-round Housing Units, 1970 and 1974 --Continued

Item	Total Units			Housing with public or private water system 1/					Housing with public sewer 2/				
	1970	1974	1970-74 change	1974		1970		Change	1974		1970		Change
	--- Thou. ---			Thou.	Pct.	Thou.	Pct.	Thou.	Thou.	Pct.	Thou.	Pct.	Thou.
South													
All year round													
Metro.	11,603	13,788	2,185	12,524	90.8	10,397	89.6	2,127	10,918	79.2	9,041	77.9	1,877
Nonmetro.	9,279	10,562	1,283	6,518	61.7	5,430	58.5	1,088	4,425	41.9	3,908	42.1	517
New construction 3/													
Metro.	1,923	2,517	594	2,302	91.5	1,758	91.4	544	2,037	80.9	1,570	81.6	467
Nonmetro.	1,404	1,728	324	1,069	61.9	880	62.7	189	666	38.5	570	40.6	96
West													
All year round													
Metro.	9,372	11,117	1,745	10,709	96.3	8,987	95.9	1,722	9,929	89.3	8,165	87.1	1,764
Nonmetro.	2,570	2,933	363	2,195	74.8	1,895	73.7	300	1,685	57.4	1,448	56.3	237
New construction 3/													
Metro.	1,511	1,829	318	1,775	97.0	1,466	97.0	309	1,677	91.7	1,380	91.3	297
Nonmetro.	413	485	72	358	73.8	281	68.0	77	240	49.5	167	40.4	73

1/ A "public water system" is defined in text footnote 1 of this paper.
2/ A "public sewer" is defined in text footnote 1 of this paper.
3/ Units built 1970-73.

Source: Bureau of Census, Annual Housing Survey 1974, United States and Regions, Part A, General Housing Characteristics, Series H-150-74A. Bureau of Census, Annual Housing Survey 1973, United States and Regions, Part A, General Housing Characteristics, Series H-150-73A

expansion of metropolitan boundaries between 1970 and 1974--that is, that the decreases might be caused by definitional changes. But the source documents specifically state that the area coverage is based on 1970 metropolitan definitions, not 1973 or 1974 definitions. 2/

Ruling out definitional causes, the unexpected variations in the proportions with public systems reflect either random sampling errors or actual variations in the types of facilities found in new housing, or in old housing that is about to be removed. At any rate, some unexpected forces appear to be affecting the proportions of housing served by public facilities in different parts of the country.

A review of the figures reported for new construction, for both 1970 and 1974, presents an even more confusing picture. First of all, in new units in both 1970 and 1974 there was slightly a lower frequency of public facilities than in the existing stock of housing. Furthermore, the proportion of new housing being equipped with public water facilities was lower in the South in 1974 than in 1970, and the proportion equipped with public sewers was lower in the nonmetropolitan areas of both the Northeast and South in 1974:

Newly Constructed Nonmetropolitan Housing Units Having:

Census regions	Public water supplies		Public sewer systems	
	1974	1970	1974	1970
	Percent			
United States	62.6	60.3	41.1	40.1
Northeast	57.3	50.8	35.2	36.0
North Central	59.3	54.1	44.6	41.1
South	61.9	62.7	38.5	40.6
West	73.8	68.0	49.5	40.4

These data suggest that either the numbers have significant errors in them or that new homes are frequently built without public systems and then, as the water mains or sewer lines are extended into the new subdivisions, the conversions to public facilities are made soon thereafter. Another plausible hypothesis might be that a trend toward fewer public facilities is already showing up in the sample statistics. If this is the case, the proportions for the total inventory of housing may begin to decline over the next few years, which could mean that the inventory of nonmetropolitan housing served by public water systems could very well remain near 60 percent for the next few years. The comparable proportion served by public sewers would probably remain in the 40 to 50 percent range for nonmetropolitan housing over the next few years.

There are two other changes that appear to be occurring simultaneously that are more definite and more clearly positive. The number and proportion of

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2/ U.S. Census Bureau, Current Housing Reports, Annual Housing Survey, 1973 and 1974.

nonmetropolitan housing units served by facilities other than public or private water and sewer systems are definitely decreasing. In other words, the number of people depending directly on lakes, springs, rivers, and streams for water supplies, and the number depending on outdoor privies for sewage disposal, are declining. And this appears to be a good sign, because both public and private systems are generally considered to be more sanitary than most of the alternatives. Similarly, it appears to be easier to monitor controlled systems, whether public or private, than the more primitive facilities so widely used in the past.

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Data analyzed for this paper do not say anything about sewer and water system conditions or need for upgrading. This situation should be corrected soon as a result of data gathered by the Environmental Protection Agency. Specifically, by February 1977, data from the 1976 Sewer Needs Survey will be available. This information can be used to develop national estimates of rural needs for sewer facilities. In addition, EPA estimates that it will have completed its national rural water study by December 1977. This study will analyze the quality and availability of water to persons living in unincorporated places or in communities of 2,500 or less.

SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT

Status Indicators

The most recently available national data on solid waste collection and disposal operations are from a county-level survey. 1/ These data show that:

*Twice as many metropolitan counties as nonmetropolitan counties--77.0 percent vs. 44.3 percent of counties surveyed--controlled solid waste activities within their municipality.

*Nonmetropolitan counties burned refuse at a rate of incidence more than twice as high as for metropolitan counties--18.3 percent for nonmetropolitan respondents vs. 8.8 percent for metropolitan counties. This situation primarily occurred in the Western States, where air pollution is relatively less of a problem.

*As would be expected, nonmetropolitan counties had a greater landfill life expectancy than metropolitan counties.

*Of all counties with responsibility for sludge disposal, significantly fewer nonmetropolitan counties disposed of their sludge through land application, using instead traditional landfill methods (14.7 percent of nonmetropolitan counties applied sludge to land vs. 20.6 percent of metropolitan respondents).

*Under section 208 of the Federal Water Pollution Control Act, sludge--the major residual from waste water treatment plants--was being considered in the water quality management plans for only 22.7 percent of nonmetropolitan counties surveyed, vs. 35.3 percent for metropolitan county respondents.

*Fewer nonmetropolitan counties reported using leachate (water contaminant) controls at their landfill sites--37.0 percent of nonmetropolitan counties vs. 46.5 percent metropolitan.

*While low proportions of both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan counties are involved in resource recovery, the proportion is much lower for nonmetropolitan counties.

*Only 20.9 percent of the nonmetropolitan counties surveyed reported that they plan to become involved in resource recovery programs in the future, vs. 36.7 percent of metropolitan counties.

1/ This paper was prepared by the Rural Development Service, USDA, and Thomas Bulger and Patricia Johnson, National Association of Counties (NACO). It presents data from, and conclusions based on, a county-level survey conducted by NACO in mid-1976 in cooperation with the Environmental Protection Agency's Office of Solid Waste Management Programs. Surveyed were 17.4 percent of the Nation's counties. In the metropolitan, or SMSA, category, 177 counties--or 27.3 percent of all metropolitan counties--were surveyed. In the nonmetropolitan category, 362 counties were surveyed, or 14.7 percent of all nonmetropolitan counties.

Discussion

Based on the NACO survey, there are indications that nonmetropolitan counties lag behind metropolitan counties in general solid waste disposal operations. In addition to the statistical findings given above, interviews with the respondents produced support for this statement. For example, respondents in nonmetropolitan counties exhibited a decided lack of awareness of potential leachate problems and associated necessary leachate controls. Many respondents did not know the meaning of the term leachate and, when it was explained, they then did not know what methods of control are available to combat the problem. Most respondents who said they did not use any controls voiced a feeling that since no instances of contamination had come to their attention, they must not have any leachate problems. Moreover, the 37.0 percent nonmetropolitan proportion that did employ leachate controls may be an overstatement, since nonmetropolitan counties' interpretations of controls were loosely defined, and respondents indicated less awareness of available control technology than the percentage of affirmative responses might indicate. In most instances, control was limited to periodic soil testing as opposed to employment of adequately engineered monitoring-wells at landfill sites.

Another area for concern relates to resource recovery. As indicated earlier, resource recovery activity was minimal in both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan counties, but in nonmetropolitan counties current activity in this area as well as concern about it for the future was barely present. In each category of resource recovery technique explored (such as separate collections, composting, and methane gas recovery), nonmetropolitan counties had barely considered resource recovery as an alternative to their disposal of solid waste. Nonmetropolitan respondents attributed their lack of interest in resource recovery to a lack of economic incentives required to justify implementation of resource recovery programs. Included in this overall reason are a general lack of stable markets for recovered products, the fact that resource recovery programs require extensive startup capital as well as professional expertise beyond the present resources of most nonmetropolitan counties, and the fact that the lower population density plus the relative abundance of land for landfill in nonmetropolitan counties removes pressure for finding alternatives to traditional disposal methods.

These same factors most likely account as well for the fact that not only are fewer nonmetropolitan counties presently involved in resource recovery, but fewer also plan to become involved in it, as is shown below:

Resource Recovery Technique	Performing Now			Plans to Implement in 5 Years		
	Nat'l Avg.	Metro.	Nonmetro.	Nat'l Avg.	Metro.	Nonmetro.
	-Percent-					
Separate Collections	8.7	12.4	6.9	10.8	15.8	8.3
Composting	3.0	6.2	1.4	3.3	1.7	6.3
Methane Gas Recovery	-2	.6*	.0	2.0	5.6	.3*
Shredding	3.3	6.8	1.7	7.8	19.8	1.9
Incineration for Res. Recovery from Incinerator Residue	1.1	2.8	.3*	4.5	9.6	1.9
Supplemental Fuel Generation	.7	2.3	.0	8.7	23.2	1.7

*One respondent only.

The rural setting also accounts for the lower use of sludge on land within nonmetropolitan counties. In many instances, sludge can be applied to farmland, but nonmetropolitan counties--with their lower population density and greater availability of landfill sites--do not yet seem pressed to use sludge this way as an alternative disposal method. Instead, they are opting for the simpler and cheaper traditional disposal method of landfilling. Although the nonmetropolitan population is now growing more rapidly than the metropolitan population, it is interesting to note that when nonmetropolitan counties were asked whether their disposal methods will remain the same in the future, 57 percent envisioned no change (vs. 58.3 percent nationally and 60 percent for the metropolitan counties surveyed).

A potentially serious problem area explored in the survey is hazardous wastes. Nonmetropolitan county responses indicate that hazardous wastes is the least understood area of solid waste disposal. The majority of nonmetropolitan respondents (and metropolitan respondents also) indicated they wouldn't know how to identify hazardous waste or know how to deal with it if it were identified. In nonmetropolitan counties, this awareness situation is further amplified by the general feeling that since no hazardous waste problem had come to their attention as yet, there must not be any.

The greater landfill life expectancy in nonmetropolitan counties is a positive factor that contributes to the current nonmetropolitan solid waste disposal situation. The county landfill life expectancy picture as based on survey findings, is as follows:

	Less than 1 year	1-5 yrs.	6-15 yrs.	16-25 yrs.	26-50 yrs.	50-100 yrs.	More than 100 yrs.
Nat. County Av.	6.0%	17.2%	31.4%	22.3%	13.8%	4.1%	2.9%
Metropolitan County Av.	8.3%	23.7%	31.4%	17.8%	12.4%	3.0%	2.4%
Nonmetropolitan County Av.	4.9%	14.1%	31.4%	24.5%	14.4%	4.6%	3.2%

Within the area of solid waste financing, the survey found that significantly more nonmetropolitan counties than metro counties had used general revenue sharing funds (GRSF) for their solid waste systems--61.3 percent of the nonmetropolitan counties surveyed vs. 40.7 percent of the metropolitan counties. The higher dependence of nonmetropolitan counties on GRSF most likely results from the lower tax base in such counties and competing needs among numerous county programs.

Two positive findings were related to the use of GRSF by nonmetropolitan counties. First, those nonmetropolitan counties that have used GRSF for their solid waste programs generally operated better solid waste systems than nonmetropolitan counties that had not used such funds for these programs. This finding is based on longer life expectancies at GRSF-using counties' landfill sites, lower incidence of planned burning of refuse (as opposed to accidental fires), and greater leachate and other environmental controls in their programs.

Second, nonmetropolitan counties that used GRSF for solid waste programs were more involved in intergovernmental arrangements for solid waste disposal. Such arrangements are believed by many people concerned with solid waste programs to hold promise for rural areas that can't afford to run innovative or even adequate programs on their own. Intergovernmental participation in disposal activities is generally seen as a means to increase volume, and could also spur lower cost, more economically feasible resource recovery programs in low population/volume areas. In fact, many of the nonmetropolitan and metropolitan counties in the survey, when commenting on the lack of involvement in resource recovery, voiced a feeling that if intergovernmental disposal agreements could be achieved and sufficient volume generated, more resource recovery efforts would be likely.

It should be noted that with the passage of the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act of 1976, States and municipalities must amend existing legislation if necessary to allow municipalities to enter into long-term solid waste agreements. Legislative changes should be forthcoming within a number of States, which will allow for the development of 20- to 30-year intergovernmental contracts that will facilitate resource recovery programs.

The foregoing presents a picture for one point during mid-1976, since the absence of national time series data on solid waste disposal in nonmetropolitan areas precludes any reporting on progress or lack of progress over a recent time period in terms that can be statistically supported. However, it can be said that with the Solid Waste Disposal Act of 1965 as amended by the Resource Recovery Act of 1970, and the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act of 1976, solid waste problems in this country are receiving Federal attention heretofore primarily given to other environmental problems such as water and air pollution. And under this legislation, State solid waste agencies have been created with the result that State and, gradually, local laws and regulations are being put into effect to prohibit unsound solid waste practices widespread in the past.

Results from the 1976 county survey reported on here point up troublesome areas in the nonmetropolitan sector that the new act will be important in addressing. For example, survey results and interviewing of respondents lead to the conclusion that nonmetropolitan counties are unaware of some of the serious implications surrounding inadquate solid waste disposal (such as ground water contamination). Many of the nonmetropolitan respondents viewed changes to their solid waste programs as being too costly and too difficult to justify, since environmental problems have not yet surfaced. This orientation to the present--while not surprising in any governmental unit experiencing rising costs and increased service demands--may prove costly to those nonmetropolitan communities experiencing or facing the renewed population growth that is occurring in numerous rural areas in the 1970's, and has negative implications for energy-related problems in this country.

PUBLIC PASSENGER TRANSPORTATION

Status Indicators

Detailed national statistics on rural passenger public transportation systems continue to be unavailable. However, the Urban Mass Transportation Administration (UMTA) of the Department of Transportation has contracted for the conduct of surveys of local public transportation in small cities and rural areas. "This is the first attempt ever made even to determine the number of vehicles and separate systems presently in operation. Because public transportation in small cities and rural areas is often either quite informal or part of some other public service operation, information is extremely difficult to collect." 1/ With this in mind, the following material is presented as a brief overview of the status of rural public transit, with focus on some important issues to be considered in any discussion of this subject.

*Widespread automobile ownership by rural Americans is facilitated by an extensive network of highways. The automobile and road system have been instrumental in reducing the isolation of rural families. However, the 1974 Annual Housing Survey showed that 15 percent of occupied housing units in nonmetropolitan areas had no access to an automobile (although some had access to a light truck), and thus are almost totally "transportation deprived." The elderly, poor, and disabled are particularly disadvantaged. Numerous small, specialized and general use public transit services are being established to address this situation. Many of these services and systems have been aided by various programs of the Federal Government.

*Intercity bus service--the most common form of public transit in rural areas--is inaccessible to many rural residents. In a sample of 25 cities of 2,500-3,000 population, 24 had some level of intercity service, but even in areas where such service is relatively extensive, the majority of households are too far from the route stops to make convenient use of the bus. Although most cities with a population over 2,500 are still served by intercity bus, the number of routes serviced continues to decline and the bus service does not provide the frequency of service needed by rural residents to reach critical services and places of employment. 2/

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Rural Development Service and the Economic Development Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

1/ Assistant Secretary for Policy, Plans, and International Affairs, Department of Transportation, in letter to Assistant Secretary for Rural Development, USDA, Oct. 26, 1976.

2/ Rural Passenger Transportation--State-of-the-Art Overview, U.S. Department of Transportation, Oct. 1976, p. 4. Available from Chief, Office of Technology Sharing, U.S. Department of Transportation, Transportation Systems Center, Kendall Square, Code 151, Cambridge, Mass. 02142.

*Rail passenger service in rural areas is oriented toward traffic between major cities and towns. Reliance on railroads for local transportation declined dramatically during the first half of this century with the introduction of all-weather roads, cars, and buses. Hence, few rural residents today rely upon railroads for their public transportation needs. When the National Railroad Passenger Corporation (AMTRAK) assumed control over most of the intercity passenger service in 1970, most of which was no longer economic, there were significant cutbacks in rail passenger service. Only the corridors connecting 22 large urban areas are now serviced by AMTRAK. Most rural residents do not live in these corridors and therefore do not have use of the service. 3/

Discussion

"The transportation needs of our rural citizens have not recently had the visible political attention of urban areas, perhaps in part because some of the Federal concerns, such as air pollution and congestion, are not as prevalent in rural areas. Consequently, less has been done at the Federal level to formulate a coordinated rural transportation policy to meet today's needs." 4/ However, governmental and nongovernmental concern about rural public transportation is increasing. A sampling of evidence of this includes: the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry's 1975 hearings on Legislation to Solve the Growing Crisis in Rural Transportation (partly devoted to public passenger transportation); the Department of Transportation's October 1976 publishing of the important resource book "Rural Passenger Transportation--State-of-the Art Overview"; The National Mass Transportation Act of 1974, which authorized $500 million for a non-urbanized area capital assistance program; the Rural Highway Public Transportation Demonstration Program; the November 1976 National Symposium on Transportation for Agriculture and Rural America; the UMTA survey of local transportation mentioned above; and the rapidly increasing number of special rural public transportation projects in localities across the Nation.

In much of the attention being given to rural passenger transportation and to other rural issues as well, transportation inadequacies are seen as central to the quality-of-life problems of certain population groups. For example, transportation difficulties may cause some elderly rural persons to ignore early warning signals of medical problems. Other deprivations include difficulty in taking advantage of job opportunities or participating in manpower services, such as job training programs.

In addition to these practical problems, many rural people are not able to easily move around to activities, people, and places. A sense of personal independence is especially important to the elderly and the handicapped, yet these are two of the groups most affected by the rural passenger transportation gap.

The issue of public transit for the transportation-deprived population is one that makes appeals on the taxpayers' purse, their feelings about helping

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3/ Ibid.

4/ A Statement of National Transportation Policy by the Secretary of Transportation, Sept. 17, 1975, p. 28.

others, and their faith that the community at large will benefit directly when more people have access to transportation. In many communities, residents are viewing transit as a public service and are absorbing the higher costs after expiration of any Federal or State funding of demonstration projects. However, in other communities, taxpayers asked to weigh the community benefits of public transit against an increased financial responsibility have been reluctant to take on the higher costs. 5/

Increasingly, passenger transportation is being considered as an element in national policy on rural and urban development. Thus, it should be planned in coordination with other Federal rural and urban development programs. 6/ Clearly, the recent demographic revival in small town and rural America has been affected by the increased ability of most rural people to get to jobs and other essential activities without changing their places of residence. Moreover, it is not an exaggeration to suggest that passenger transportation is a key element in the social and economic structure of the rural community and affects its place in the economy and society of the Nation as a whole.

5/ The experiences of a number of communities trying to solve their public transportation problems are documented in "Small City Transit Characteristics: An Overview" and other, companion reports issued by UMTA on case studies on transit service in 13 small communities and rural areas of the United States. The Overview is Report No. UMTA-MA-06-0049-76-1. The 13 separate reports are numbered UMTA-MA-06-0044-76-2 through -14, respectively, for Amherst, Mass.,; Ann Arbor, Mich.; Bremerton, Wash.; Chapel Hill, N.C.; East Chicago, Ind.; El Cajon, Calif.; Eugene/Springfield, Oreg.; Evansville, Ind.; Merced, Calif.; Merrill, Wisc.; Sudbury, Mass.; Westport, Conn.; and Xenia, Ohio. The documents are available through the National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Va. 22161.

6/ This position is similar to that expressed by Secretary William T. Coleman, Jr., in his 1975 statement of National Transportation Policy.

Status Indicators

*Between fiscal years 1960 and 1975, the Interstate Commerce Commission granted permission for abandonment of 22,833 miles of railroad, most of which connected nonmetropolitan areas to the intercity-interstate rail network. This reduced available miles of linehaul railroad from 218,000 miles in 1960 to less than 200,000 in 1976. 1/

*Rural areas' 916,000 miles of unsurfaced roads in 1962 had declined to 740,000 by 1972 and the 2,229,000 miles of surfaced roads in 1962 had risen to 2,433,000 by 1972. Nonetheless, 30 percent of the 692,000 miles of collector (feeder-type) roads in rural areas still were gravel or unpaved in 1970 and another 28 percent had low-type pavement. 2/

*More than three-fifths of all rural arterial and collector roads were identified by the States as deficient in some respect in 1970, but in terms of 1967 dollar values, capital spending on rural roads by State and local governments (including allotment and Federal funds) declined steadily from $6,239 million in 1970 to $3,978 million in 1975; and for maintenance, from $2,700 million in 1970 to $2,539 million in 1975. Spending on rural roads as a percent of total highway spending decreased slightly over the period, going from 63 percent in 1970 to 60 percent in 1975. The increasing economies of large trucks for rural transportation and the increasing abandonment of rural railroads are likely to cause structurally deficient bridges on rural roads to become more noticeable in the next several years. 3/

*Of the 231,908 bridges inventoried and classified on the Federal-aid highway system as of December 1975, 7,629 were considered structurally deficient and 27,067 functionally obsolete, by the Federal Highway Administration. Some 32,874 bridges were considered to be in such condition that they should be load posted. 4/ Little is known about the condition and safety of the more than 200,000 bridges not on or crossing the Federal-aid highway system.

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the National Economic Analysis Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

1/ Interstate Commerce Commission Annual Reports, various years; and Yearbook of Railroad Facts, Assoc. Am. Railroads, Wash., D.C., 1976.

2/ Rural areas here and in the following paragraph are defined as open country and places of 5,000 population or less. Source: Highway Statistics, U.S. Dept. Trans., Wash., D.C., 1962 and 1972.

3/ Highway Statistics, and 1974 National Highway Needs Report, U.S. Dept. Trans., Wash., D.C.

4/ Unpublished data obtained from State Highway Planning Division, Bureau of Public Roads, Office of Highway Planning, U.S. Department of Transportation (data collected for 1972 National Highway Needs Report).

*Airports increased in number from 1963 to 1973, both those with runway lights and those with paved runways, but authorized service existed at fewer points in 1973:

Year	Total airports on record with FAA	Authorized for service	Certified air carier service (actual)
1963	8,814	570	551
1973	12,700	505	505

Source: FAA Statistical Handbook of Aviation, U.S. Dept. Trans., Wash., D.C., 1974.

The recent rapid growth of the so-called commuter airlines implies that there will be further reduction of airports served by certified carriers. This does not necessarily mean less satisfactory service for rural areas.

*Inland rivers are important arteries for agricultural and other bulky low-valued products moving from rural areas. Navigation on some sections of rivers requires dams and locks, and some of these are old and becoming hazardous to transit. Conditions of the 29 locks and dams on the upper Mississippi and the seven locks on the Illinois River are of special concern to agriculture.

Discussion

The bankruptcy of the Penn Central and several smaller railroads in the Midwest and Northeast regions in the early 1970's ushered in concern for the financial well-being of railroads to a position of high national priority. Among other adverse factors, low-density, uneconomic mileage was identified as a drain on the viability of railroads. Studies in the Midwest-Northeast identified the rural mileage considered to be uneconomical, and impact analyses conducted by numerous organizations found that adverse impacts from abandonment of low-density rural lines were, in aggregate, limited. In many instances, those agricultural shippers using rail service appeared likely to have to absorb increased transportation costs occasioned by abandonment; for others, increased transportation costs appeared likely to be borne by farmers or the local communities.

The Rail Revitalization and Regulatory Reform Act of 1976 (P.L. 94-210) modified conditions to be considered by the Interstate Commerce Commission in deciding whether to authorize line abandonment, and provided for some Federal assistance in subsidizing nonviable but essential lines. This Act required the Secretary of Transportation to submit a comprehensive report on the anticipated effect, including the environmental impact, of any abandonments of lines of railroad and any discontinuances of rail service outside the Midwest and Northeast.

The analysis for that report resulted in an estimate that some 18 percent of the mileage in the remaining 31 States consists of potentially uneconomic light density lines, accounting for 2.4 percent of total carloads in the 31 States. Although 10 percent of agricultural carload originations and terminations occurred on these potentially uneconomic lines, several other studies have indicated some gains in efficiency from consolidating shipments onto fewer lines. It thus seems unlikely that rural development in communities other than farm trading centers would suffer serious adverse effects from abandonments of low-density rail lines outside the Midwest-Northeast. Nonetheless, specific study for communities faced with abandonment proposals could identify exceptions to the patterns found in the Midwest and Northeast.

As mentioned earlier, slightly reduced resources went into rural road construction and maintenance between 1970 and 1975. In part, this is tied to the method of financing highway expenditures, particularly at State levels. Funds generated primarily by fixed taxes per gallon of fuel did not grow in the 1970's at the same rate as in earlier decades, and inflation in construction and maintenance costs was faster than the growth in trust fund receipts. Another part of the explanation may lie in the completion of major rural projects on the Interstate Highway System. The lower traffic densities on rural roads may make it more feasible to defer rural construction and maintenance projects than it is for the high-density urban system.

The importance of adequate transportation access to agricultural and other rural development is not easily assessed. Transportation is a necessary condition of development, but its presence is not enough to insure development. The post-1970 growth of population and jobs in rural areas, the improvement in housing, and other indicators discussed in this report signify the adequacy of rural transportation to support these levels. Nonetheless, the trends found in railroad mileages, spending on rural highways, numbers of airports with certified service, and waterway efficiency are causes for concern by those directing efforts aimed at furthering rural development. The strong roles of highways in both agricultural marketing and in manufacturing plant location make it especially important that rural highways receive adequate resources for serving these roles. The heavy use of locks and dams on the Mississippi River by agriculture also implies a substantial stake in decisions on the maintenance of this water transportation system.

FIRE PREVENTION AND CONTROL

Status Indicator

Adequate national statistical data to define the rural fire problem and to indicate areas of progress or lack of progress are not yet available. However, there are many indications of a continuing, serious rural fire problem and of increasing efforts to improve the situation. The rural fire problem is discussed below, and Federal initiatives to help rural communities in meeting this problem are discussed in Part II, beginning on page 84.

Discussion

According to studies by the National Fire Prevention and Control Administration (U.S. Department of Commerce) and others, the United States has the highest per capita rates of fires, fire losses, and fire deaths. 1/ A disproportionately large part of this problem falls on the rural resident. For example, as reported in the Third Annual Report, nonmetropolitan residents have significantly greater fire fatality rates than metropolitan residents, according to data from HEW's Center for Health Statistics. 2/ Other evidence of the relatively greater fire problem in rural areas includes the Oregon State Fire Marshal's 1975 report showing that average fire losses in unprotected rural areas averaged almost $10,000 per fire, compared with $1,700 to $2,800 in cities and towns with recognized fire departments. Average loss as a percent of total value was 20.9 percent in unprotected areas vs. only 5.9 percent statewide. Insurance pay-outs were 17.8 percent of policy values, compared with 5.2 percent statewide. 3/

The Oregon data further show that properties in the farming sector of the State's rural areas had much more severe losses than all properties statewide. While the ratio of sound loss to value for all properties was only 5.9 percent in 1975, it was 44.7 percent for barns and stables, 41.5 percent for farm equipment, and as high as 99.3 percent and 100 percent for potato storage and agricultural storage. 4/

NOTE: This paper was prepared in cooperation with the National Fire Safety and Research Office and the National Fire Data Center, both in the National Fire Prevention and Control Administration, and the Forest Service, USDA.

1/ David W. Harlow, International Fire Losses 1974, Fire Journal, Nov. 1975, Vol. 69, No. 6, NFPA, Boston, Mass., p. 43.

2/ Cited in America Burning, Report of the National Commission on Fire Prevention and Control, U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Wash., D.C., 1973, p. 93.

3/ Annual Statistical Report for Calendar Year 1975, Oregon State Fire Marshal, Salem, Ore., 1976, pp. 70-74.

4/ Ibid, pp. 70 et seq. Last 3 percentages based on limited number of cases.

A lack of manpower, equipment, training, and communications apparatus is among aspects of the rural fire problem particularly noted by applicants for fire protection grants under a pilot program authorized by the Rural Development Act. Published surveys indicate that rural fire departments have less hose, smaller pumping engines, and less breathing apparatus than recognized national standards require. 5/ In some communities, firefighters must buy their own protective equipment out of their own pockets. Many rely on donations from the public for capital expenditures for stations and apparatus. Most rural firefighters are volunteers, and few of them can afford to take time off from their jobs to attend needed comprehensive training programs 6/ or to make needed fire safety inspections. All of these problems are most acute in areas where poverty is a factor.

Even worse off are the rural areas that have no fire protection beyond the individual family's own good sense and the implements they may have for fighting a fire. Beyond the fact that such areas have no trained forces for rescuing inhabitants from a fire and fighting the fire, the absence of a local fire department means they also lack access to one of the primary means of learning about fire prevention and home fire safety.

Fire in forests and wildlands is another part of the rural fire problem and one that threatens to become worse as more homesites are built on wildlands and as the use of forests for recreation increases.

A number of rural areas also have no fire safety codes or ordinances, or where they do exist, there may be inadequate means for inspection and enforcement.

Some rural areas are able to contract for fire protection from nearby communities or county or regional organizations. However, the rural population is often so thinly distributed that for many the nearest firefighting unit may be 5, 10, or more miles away. Research has shown that after a fire ignites, 5 or fewer minutes are often sufficient for deadly conditions to develop in remote bedrooms. 7/ Standard fire development curves indicate that a smoldering fire, left to itself, often will develop into a major fire in 20 minutes. 8/ Firefighters coming a great distance will arrive too late to rescue anyone from the fire, and too late to keep a serious property loss from occurring. Similarly, seriously injured fire casualties must be transported

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5/ Statistician's Report, South Carolina State Firemen's Association, Orangeburg, S.C., 1976; Respiratory Protective Equipment for Firefighters, Standard #19B, NFPA, Boston, Mass., 1976; Standard Schedule for Grading Cities and Towns of the United States with Respect to Their Fire Defenses and Physical Conditions, National Board of Fire Underwriters, New York, 1964, pp. 44-48, 64.

6/ Standard for Firefighters, Standard #1001, NFPA, Boston, Mass. (in press).

7/ The Saint Lawrence Burns Fire Quarterly, Apr. 1960, Vol. 53, No. 2, NFPA, Boston, Mass., pp. 307-308.

8/ Fire Protection Handbook, 14th Edition, NFPA, Boston, Mass., 1969, pp. 6-80, 6-81.

long distances to reach competent trauma-treating facilities, and even greater distances to reach specialized burn care centers.

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As mentioned earlier, new Federal initiatives to help meet some of the problems outlined above are discussed in Part II of this report. A major part of the discussion is on the work of the recently established National Fire Prevention and Control Administration.

Persons concerned with the rural fire problem should also note the following: Of the various topics in this report--ranging from deficiencies in rural health care to needs in public transportation--the fire problem is perhaps unique. First of all, the major cause of fire is human carelessness and neglect. And second, individuals and families can make a considerable contribution to their own fire safety without highly specialized technical skills or major expenditures. This low-cost, "self-help" aspect applies much less to other problem areas discussed in the report, with the exceptions of preventive medicine aspects of the rural health care problem, and some innovative transportation solutions. Because, as noted above, a disproportionately large share of the Nation's fire losses and fire deaths occur in rural areas, rural residents and communities must assume a special responsibility for greatly increased efforts in fire safety and fire prevention. With help in basic fire safety, rural residents can go a long way toward safeguarding themselves, their families, and their property from fire.

Status Indicators

*The level of crime per 100,000 persons remains substantially lower in nonmetropolitan areas compared with metropolitan areas. But the rate of crime per 100,000 persons in nonmetropolitan areas increased at a rate slightly above the national and metropolitan averages from 1974 to 1975 (table 1).

Table 1--Crime Rate and Percentage Change by Area, 1974-75

Area and Type of Crime	Crime rates per 100,000 inhabitants		Percentage change 1974-1975 2/
	1974	1975 1/	
Total U.S.	4,821	5,281	9.5
Violent 3/	458	481	5.0
Property 3/	4,362	4,800	10.0
Metropolitan Areas 4/	5,621	6,110	8.7
Violent	558	580	3.9
Property	5,063	5,529	9.2
Rural 5/	1,746	1,997	14.4
Violent	151	167	10.6
Property	1,595	1,829	14.7
Small Cities 5/	4,027	4,437	10.2
Violent	249	269	8.0
Property	3,777	4,168	10.4

1/ Source: Uniform Crime Reports for the United States, for the years 1970-1975, Federal Bureau of Investigation, U.S. Dept. of Justice, Washington, D.C. Crime rates for 1975 are from preliminary tables not yet published in the 1975 report.

2/ Absolute change in the rate as a percentage of the 1974 rate.

3/ Crime of murder, forcible rape, and aggravated assault. Property crimes include robbery, burglary, larceny-theft, and motor vehicle theft.

4/ Metropolitan areas refer to Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, which are made up of a city with 50,000 or more inhabitants and the surrounding county or counties which have certain metropolitan characteristics.

5/ Together rural areas and small cities as defined here approximate nonmetropolitan America.

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Economic Development Division of the Economic Research Service, USDA.

*Victimization rates for crimes of theft and personal larceny without contact had a greater increase in nonmetropolitan areas than metropolitan areas from 1973 to 1974. The percentage change for all other crimes for metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas was not statistically significant (table 2).

Discussion

The absolute crime and victimization rates are lower in nonmetropolitan areas compared with metropolitan areas. Thus, the probability of being a victim during this time period was less in nonmetropolitan areas. However, the crime rate and selected victimization rates are increasing at a faster pace in nonmetropolitan areas compared with metropolitan areas. Because the rates are lower in nonmetropolitan areas, however, fewer crimes are required to cause a one percent change in the nonmetropolitan versus metropolitan crime rates.

No one knows exactly what is causing crime rates to increase in rural areas. From a survey of rural crime in Ohio, citizens felt that the rising crime rate was caused by the laxity of the courts, low level of law enforcement, breakdown of the family, and growth in rural population. 1/ One can add to this partial list the following: an improved highway system facilitating the spillover of some metropolitan crime into rural areas; an increase in the amount and value of stealable wealth (for example, CB radio and farm machinery); and the reluctance of many rural residents to take extra precaution in protecting their belongings.

The growing crime rate along with a swelling of noncriminal calls for service is causing an increase in the demand for local police service. Rural local officials can expect total costs for local police services to increase because of this rising demand and because --

* Higher salaries may be required to recruit and retain quality law officials,

* Police equipment is becoming more sophisticated and expensive, and

* Police departments with fewer than 10 persons may meet difficulty in obtaining Federal grants to finance some police equipment needs.

Rural local officials can follow one of several strategies when providing police services to their communities:

Strategy I--Rural officials can choose not to have a police department, relying instead upon the state police and county sheriff to provide police service. While this strategy is very inexpensive, local officials have little control over the level and quality of service received by their community.

1/ G. Howard Phillips, Crime in Rural Ohio, prepared for the Ohio Farm Bureau Federation, 1975, pp. iii.

Table 2--Change in personal crime victimization rates for persons age 12 and over, by place of residence and type of crime, 1973 and 1974

(Rate per 1,000 persons age 12 and over)

Place of residence	Number of persons in group	Crimes of Violence				Crimes of Theft		
		Total	Rape	Robbery	Assault	Total	Personal larceny	
							With Contact	Without Contact
All places of residence								
1973 rate	162,183,000	32.3	0.9	6.7	24.7	91.0	3.1	88.0
1974 rate	164,562,000	32.8	1.0	7.1	24.7	94.9	3.1	91.8
Percent change		+1.5	+4.3	+6.4	+0.1	*+4.2	+1.6	*+4.3
Total in metropolitan areas								
Inside central cities								
1973 rate	49,477,000	43.7	1.5	12.1	30.1	100.4	5.6	94.9
1974 rate		44.7	1.5	12.5	30.7	102.9	5.3	97.5
Percent change		+2.3	-1.9	+3.6	+2.0	+2.4	-4.3	+2.8
Outside central cities								
1973 rate	61,541,000	31.2	0.8	5.7	24.7	100.0	2.5	97.5
1974 rate	63,321,000	32.4	0.9	6.1	25.4	103.7	2.8	100.9
Percent change		+4.0	+15.2	+7.7	+2.8	**+3.7	+11.0	+3.5
Total in nonmetropolitan areas								
1973 rate	51,129,000	22.6	0.5	2.7	19.4	71.1	1.2	69.9
1974 rate	51,763,000	21.9	0.6	3.2	18.1	76.4	1.3	75.0
Percent change		-3.4	+3.7	+18.8	-6.7	*+7.4	+8.1	*+7.4

*Percent change is significant at the 2 standard error or 95 percent confidence level.
**Percent change is significant at the 1.6 standard error or 90 percent confidence level.

Strategy II--Local officials can start and maintain their own police department. The community will incur expense as it purchases its own communication, vehicle, and personnel equipment and hires and trains qualified personnel. Local officials may also find that maintaining local control can be very time consuming.

Strategy III--Local officials can contract for police service with another unit of government. Under contract, local officials purchase a set number of patrol hours and related police service from another police agency for some negotiated sum of money. The contracting community can stipulate to the seller the type and level of service, can achieve lower costs by sharing overhead expense with the seller (for example, communication equipment and police administrator's salary), and cancel the contract if the service is not satisfactory. Contracting for police service is becoming a nationwide trend.

Strategy IV--Local officials can jointly start and maintain a police department with a neighboring community. Again, some overhead expense can be shared. A joint police operation requires a compatible neighboring community and some mechanism for the joint community control of the operation.

RURAL HANDICAPPED INDIVIDUALS

Status Indicators

Relevant data not available; there is no current ongoing system for data collection on the characteristics or number of handicapped individuals in urban and rural areas for vocational rehabilitation purposes, the purpose most related to the concerns of the Rural Development Act, under which this report is prepared.

Discussion

The extent of disability in the population varies, depending on both the definition of disability and the age groups included. The following table for the United States lists the results of different surveys by organization, age group, and number and percent of the population. These surveys used different measures in assessing the disabled--some in terms of impairment and others in terms of capacity for full- and part-time work or functional limitations for various types of work or personal care. The extent of disability is as follows:

Agency	Age group	No. in millions	Pct. of U.S. population
U.S. Census (1970)	14-64	12.1	9.9
SSA 1966 Survey	18-64	17.8	17.2
National Center for Health Statistics 1969-70	18-64	7.6	8.9
Current Population Survey	14+	10.6	Not avail.
Survey of Economic Opportunity (1966)	14-64	15.4	Not avail.

The estimates of disability among the working age population as presented above vary from 7.6 million to over 17 million persons age 18-64, depending on the definition of disability used by the agency conducting the census or survey.

Most data files do not contain information on handicapping conditions at

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NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Office of Handicapped Individuals and the Rehabilitation Services Administration, both in the Office of Human Development, HEW. Significant contributions were also made by the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped and the Architectural and Transportation Barriers Board.

all; a few focus on disability. The primary data sources useful for estimates of the disabled population measure inability to work attributed to some health condition or disability. However, there is no ongoing system for data collection on handicapped individuals in urban and rural areas for vocational rahabilitation purposes.

Although rehabilitation and placement services are available in nonmetropolitan communities, it is difficult to say how many handicapped rural residents are placed in employment since State employment service agencies do not break down their figures reported to the U.S. Department of Labor's Employment and Training Administration on a nonmetropolitan/metropolitan basis or any other rural/urban basis.

Although many State employment service agencies report a variety as well as a good supply of jobs available, the President's Committee on the Employment of the Handicapped has observed that placement of handicapped persons in rural areas varies in every State according to a number of factors. Here are some of them:

*In areas where nonmetropolitan communities have industry and local committees on employment of the handicapped, handicapped people receive their share of the placements. These committees make employers aware of the capabilities of handicapped persons.

*In areas that depend on seasonal activity, such as summer vacation or tourism trade, or on farm-related activities, placement opportunities may not be available. Consequently, handicapped people would find themselves in competition with nonhandicapped job seekers for those jobs that exist, and would have some difficulty in obtaining work.

*In high unemployment areas, handicapped people have employment difficulties. This is true in some areas of New England, for example, where unemployment is high as a result of plant closings and relocations.

*The advent of Federal Affirmative Action regulations and State antidiscrimination laws relating to employment of handicapped people has had an impact on placement of qualified handicapped people in nonmetropolitan areas. Employers in communities covered by those laws have shown interest in the problem as witnessed by the number of seminars on employment of the handicapped that have been held in many small communities. This concern and the willingness to comply with regulations voluntarily indicate handicapped people are receiving careful consideration in such communities.

Although State divisions of vocational rehabilitation and State employment service agencies carry on extensive outreach efforts to inform handicapped people of available services, there are many handicapped persons living in rural areas who have yet to be touched by these services. Service delivery agencies indicate that the key problems in serving rural handicapped people are:

*Lack of transportation,

*Lack of accessible housing in instances where persons in need of services must be put up for one or more nights in order to receive services,

*Shortage of staff, and

*Great distances that must be traveled in some States in order for someone to receive services.

New Federal initiatives in assisting the handicapped, including responses to some of the problems discussed above, are described in Part II of this report, beginning on page 87.

THE RURAL ELDERLY

Status Indicators

*About 7.7 million people 65 years old and over resided in nonmetropolitan areas 1/ in 1975, and 13.4 million resided in metropolitan areas. The elderly (65+) constituted 11.5 percent of the nonmetropolitan population, compared with 9.4 percent in metropolitan areas.

*For both the under 65 and 65+ populations, there has been a decrease in recent years in the number of persons who move from nonmetropolitan to metropolitan areas, and an increase in the number who move away from metropolitan areas to nonmetropolitan areas. Considering the net difference between these two opposing migration flows for elderly persons, there was a net difference in 1970 of about 90,000 in favor of those moving from metropolitan to nonmetropolitan areas during the previous 5 years. By 1975, this net difference had more than tripled, increasing to almost 300,000.

*In 1974, as in previous years, the poverty rate among the elderly was higher in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas. About one of every five (20.3 percent) elderly people reported incomes below the Government's poverty threshold in nonmetropolitan areas, compared with one in seven (14.9 percent) in the central cities and one in nine (11.0 percent) in the suburbs.

*In March 1974, there were about 1.2 million elderly people living in nonmetropolitan areas who were in the labor force. The labor force participation rate for elderly males was slightly higher in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas (24 vs. 21 percent) and the same in both areas for females (8 percent). This is in contrast to April 1970, when the labor force participation rates for both elderly males and females were higher in metropolitan areas. Since 1970, these rates have declined by several percentage points in metropolitan areas while declining only slightly in nonmetropolitan areas.

Discussion

Growing older in nonmetropolitan America presents special and unique problems for rural people. The 1971 White House Conference on Aging was instrumental in calling the Nation's attention to the problems of the elderly. Since that time much activity has taken place to serve this target group of which most of us one day will be members.

Sheer distance between people, and between people and services, is the most obvious aspect in which rural areas differ from urban ones. Distance complicates the delivery of any service to rural older people; the expense of

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NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Administration on Aging, Office of Human Development, HEW. Data are from the 1970 Census of Population and Current Population Reports 55, 95, 102, and 285, unless otherwise noted.

1/ The metropolitan/nonmetropolitan definition used in the text and detailed tables is as of 1970.

maintaining private cars and shortage of public transportation bar many older people from coming to services.

The distribution of the elderly, like that of the total population, differs considerably by race. Within the white population, the elderly are relatively more concentrated in the central cities of metropolitan areas than in the suburban fringe 2/ or in nonmetropolitan areas. In 1975, elderly white people constituted 12.4 percent of the white central city population, compared to 11.8 percent in nonmetropolitan areas and 8.4 percent in the suburban fringe. Among blacks, on the other hand, the elderly were a higher proportion of the total population in nonmetropolitan areas (9.3 percent) than in the central cities or suburbs (6.7 and 6.2 percent, respectively).

In 1975, roughly one-third of the elderly resided in central cities, one-third lived in suburban areas, and one-third lived in nonmetropolitan areas. For blacks, however, over one-half resided in central cities, only one-seventh lived in the suburbs, and one-third resided in nonmetropolitan areas.

Between 1970 and 1975, the Nation's elderly population grew twice as fast as the population under 65 (9.8 vs. 4.4 percent). The fastest area of growth for both age groups was the suburbs, followed by nonmetropolitan areas. The under 65 population in the central cities actually declined by 3 percent, while the elderly population there grew by only 2 percent. The growth pattern of the white population mirrored that of the total population. However, the black population in the central cities continued to grow. While this growth was not as rapid as the population gains registered by suburban blacks, it was twice as large as the growth experienced by the nonmetropolitan black population. 3/

The rural elderly have a higher incidence of poverty than their city counterparts and the general population. Elderly couples and individuals reported incomes in 1974 about 50 percent lower than younger couples and individuals in both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas. One-half (51.1 percent) of the black elderly population in nonmetropolitan areas was below the poverty level.

According to a 1974 Bureau of the Census survey, elderly couples 4/ living in nonmetropolitan areas reported a median income of $6,000, about 20 percent less than for similar couples living in metropolitan areas. Two of every five reported incomes under $5,000. Elderly persons living alone in nonmetropolitan areas reported a median income of less than $3,000, and 81 percent reported less than $5,000.

2/ "Suburban fringe" or "suburbs" refers to the metropolitan population that resides outside the central cities.

3/ It should be noted that although the black suburban population grew by 18 percent during the period 1970-75, only one out of six blacks resided in these areas in 1975.

4/ Husband-wife families with a head 65 years old and over.

The rate of poverty among the elderly has actually declined since 1971. In that year, 29 percent of the rural elderly were considered poor, almost 3 people in 10. By 1974, this figure had dropped to 20 percent, or 2 people in 10. This encouraging trend, however, appeared to have leveled off in preliminary figures released by the Bureau of the Census in 1976. The probable cause of this stabilization was the 1975-76 general economic slowdown.

From 1970 to 1974, the labor force participation rate for older workers decreased slightly and the unemployment rate showed significant improvement in rural areas. In 1974, the labor force participation rate for elderly males was slightly higher in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas (24 vs. 21 percent) and the same in both areas for females (8 percent). This is in contrast to 1970, when these rates were higher for the metropolitan elderly. The unemployment rate among the elderly labor force was cut in half or more in nonmetropolitan areas during this same 5-year period. At the same time, the unemployment rate for persons under 65 in these areas was rising slightly.

Possible causes for these income and employment gains among the rural elderly include the overall general increase in manufacturing and service employment in nonmetropolitan areas; increases in social security benefits; a greater awareness among employers for hiring the elderly; and the increase of elderly people employed in special aging human services programs; that is, area agencies on aging, nutrition centers, and community service employment programs.

RURAL SOCIAL SECURITY BENEFICIARIES

Status Indicators

*About one-third of all social security beneficiaries resided in nonmetropolitan areas at the end of 1975. Since nonmetropolitan area residents received 30 percent of the total amount payable to all beneficiaries, they received a lower share of the benefit amount in proportion to their number.

*The average monthly benefit amount for all beneficiaries residing in nonmetropolitan areas was 85 percent as large as the average for metropolitan area residents at the end of 1970 and 86 percent as large at the end of 1975. The differential reflects the lower paying jobs and/or greater amount of self-employment in nonmetropolitan areas.

*At the end of 1975, benefits for retired workers in nonmetropolitan areas averaged $190.45, compared with $214.80 in metropolitan areas. Comparable averages for disabled workers were $214.76 and $231.29, respectively.

Discussion

At the end of 1975, about one-third of all persons receiving social security benefits--roughly 10.3 million--lived in areas defined by the Office of Management and Budget as nonmetropolitan. From 1970 through 1975, the number of nonmetropolitan area beneficiaries increased by 4 percent, compared with 30 percent for beneficiaries in metropolitan areas. The growth of metropolitan area beneficiaries since 1970 is primarily due to changes in the definition of the various metropolitan areas; many counties which were classified as being part of metropolitan areas in 1975 were not so classified in 1970.

Beneficiary Distribution. The proportions of specific groups of beneficiaries living in nonmetropolitan areas in 1975 varied somewhat, depending on the race, age, or sex grouping. A smaller proportion of the Nation's black beneficiaries (28 percent) than of the white beneficiaries (33 percent) or the beneficiaries of other races (38 percent) resided in nonmetropolitan areas, reflecting the low proportion of the black population in nonmetropolitan areas (25 percent in 1974).

About 34 percent of beneficiaries under 18 lived in nonmetropolitan areas, compared with 28 percent of those aged 18-21. The majority of beneficiaries aged 18-21 were full-time students.

Relatively fewer beneficiaries aged 65 and older (32 percent) resided in nonmetropolitan areas, compared with beneficiaries aged 22-64 (34 percent). Also, 34 percent of adult men beneficiaries resided in nonmetropolitan areas, compared with 31 percent of adult women.

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Office of Research and Statistics, Social Security Administration, HEW. Data are from the 1975 Annual Survey of OASDI Beneficiaries, conducted by the Office of Research and Statistics.

The proportion of the Nation's beneficiaries residing in nonmetropolitan areas also varied among the different benefit categories. It was about 31 percent for retired workers, about 32 percent for survivor beneficiaries, and 33 percent for disabled workers. It was about 39 percent for dependents (spouses and children) of retired and disabled workers.

Monthly Benefit Amounts. Social security beneficiaries residing in nonmetropolitan areas receive a lower share of the total benefit amount in proportion to their number, as well as receive lower average monthly benefits than their metropolitan counterparts. Since social security benefit amounts are related to the average monthly earnings of workers before retirement, death, or disability, the lower benefits for beneficiaries in nonmetropolitan areas reflect lower paying jobs and/or more self-employment in those areas than in metropolitan areas. Social security cash benefits payable at the end of 1975 to residents of nonmetropolitan areas amounted to $1.6 billion a month or 30 percent of the total amount payable to all beneficiaries. Since they represented about 33 percent of all beneficiaries, they received a lower share of the benefit amount in proportion to their number. At the end of 1970, about 39 percent of all beneficiaries lived in nonmetropolitan areas, but they only received about 35 percent of the total benefits payable.

Average monthly benefit amounts were lower for beneficiaries in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas, both overall and for specified benefit categories. Overall, the average benefit for all beneficiaries in nonmetropolitan areas was 85 percent as large as the average for metropolitan area beneficiaries at the end of 1970 and 86 percent as large at the end of 1975. For retired workers, the average monthly amount in nonmetropolitan areas was about 88 percent of the average amount payable in metropolitan areas at the end of 1970 and 89 percent as large at the end of 1975. The average benefit amount for retired workers in nonmetropolitan areas was $190.45 at the end of 1975. Average benefits for disabled workers at the end of 1975 were $214.76 for those in nonmetropolitan areas, compared with $231.29 in metropolitan areas. Corresponding averages for widows and widowers were $176.94 in nonmetropolitan areas and $202.24 in metropolitan areas.

The proportion of beneficiaries getting low benefits was higher for those living in nonmetropolitan areas than for those residing in metropolitan areas and the opposite for the proportion getting high benefits. For example, at the end of 1975, the proportions receiving $150 or less were 35 percent for the retired workers, 18 percent for the disabled workers, and 36 percent for the widows and widowers in nonmetropolitan areas. The corresponding percentages for those in metropolitan areas were 24, 13, and 20, respectively. On the other hand, the proportions of beneficiaries receiving $275 or more were 13 percent for the retired workers and 23 percent for the disabled workers in nonmetropolitan areas, while in metropolitan areas it was 22 percent for the retired workers and 32 percent for the disabled workers. Also, about 21 percent of the widows and widowers living in metropolitan areas received monthly benefits of $250 or more, while only 12 percent of the widows and widowers in nonmetropolitan areas received that much.

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Social security income as well as the AFDC income discussed in the following pages is a component of income that is important for rural development even though development emphasis tends to be on jobs and employment income. This income is important because of the Nation's concern for people in financial need because of retirement, death of spouse or parent, disability, or considerations involved in AFDC programs. It is also important because transfer income stimulates the job market and demand for goods and services. This report is taking a beginning look at social security income beneficiaries and AFDC families as part of a continuing effort to identify urban-rural differences in a wide range of areas that affect the quality of people's lives.

AID TO FAMILIES WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN IN RURAL AREAS

Status Indicators

*One in five of all AFDC families lived in nonmetropolitan areas in 1973. This represents a relative decrease since 1971, when one in four nonmetropolitan families were receiving AFDC payments.

*5.5 percent of all U.S. families received AFDC benefits in 1976. Of the total nonmetropolitan families, it is estimated that 3.7 percent received AFDC assistance, while 6.3 percent of metropolitan families received such aid.

*Approximately 76 percent of all AFDC families are headed by a woman. The poverty rate of families headed by a woman in 1975 was 32.5 percent. The rate for male-headed families was 6.2 percent. No data are available for an urban/rural comparison.

Discussion

Aid to families with dependent children (AFDC) is a Federal-State program that provides a cash payment to families with children in which loss of support or care has occurred due to death, continued absence, incapacity, or unemployment of a parent. Through the Social Security Act, Federal funds are made available to all States, the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands for the AFDC program, which is administered in accordance with an approved plan of program operations that is implemented statewide.

In April 1976, 3,590,803 families received AFDC--about 5.5 percent of the total families in the United States. Of the U.S. families in nonmetropolitan areas, an estimated 3.7 percent receive AFDC cash assistance, while 6.3 percent of metropolitan families receive such aid.

A sample study of the AFDC families conducted by the National Center for Social Statistics in January 1973 provides the most recent available information on the characteristics of the rural AFDC population. One in five of the approximately 3 million AFDC families in 1973 lived in nonmetropolitan areas. This represents a relative decrease in the proportion of the AFDC families in nonmetropolitan areas from 1971, when one in four families lived in such areas. During this same 2-year period, the actual number--about 650,000 families--living in nonmetropolitan areas remained nearly constant.

Nonmetropolitan AFDC families were larger on the average than families living in metropolitan areas. While 4 in 10 metropolitan families were in households of 3 or fewer members, only 3 in 10 nonmetropolitan families were in comparable sized households. Nearly twice as many nonmetropolitan as metropolitan households had more than seven members (9 and 17 percent, respectively). The median number of household members for the two groups was 5.1 persons for rural and 4.4 persons for urban households.

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the National Center for Social Statistics, Social and Rehabilitation Service, HEW. Data are from the 1973 Biennial AFDC Characteristics Study, conducted by the National Center.

There was a smaller concentration of minority families among nonmetropolitan AFDC families than metropolitan AFDC families. Although nonmetropolitan families comprised only one in five total AFDC families, they accounted for one in four of the AFDC families classified as white. In comparison, about one in six of the black families and nearly two in three American Indian families were in nonmetropolitan areas. The proportion of AFDC families in nonmetropolitan and metropolitan areas that were of Spanish ancestry was about the same for the two areas (11 and 14 percent, respectively).

In 1973, there was a greater likelihood that both family planning services and protective services were provided to nonmetropolitan AFDC families than to AFDC families in metropolitan areas. Family planning services are provided to limit family size, space children, and prevent births out of wedlock, while protective services are provided in the interest of neglected or abused children. Of the nonmetropolitan AFDC families, 15 percent received family planning and 4 percent received protective services; 11 percent and 3 percent of the metropolitan families received the respective services.

In 1973, AFDC families in nonmetropolitan areas participated in USDA food distribution programs at nearly the same rate as metropolitan families; that is, over two-thirds of the families participated. At that time, before the availability of food stamps in all areas of the United States, however, nearly four times as many AFDC nonmetropolitan families than AFDC metropolitan families participated in the surplus commodities food program. While half the AFDC nonmetropolitan families obtained authorization to purchase food stamps, 63 percent of the metropolitan families were authorized. The likely reason for the differential stems from the fact that in 1973 all areas of the United States were not yet using food stamps, with some rural areas still being involved with the surplus commodity food program.

There was variation in the rate of participation in other Federal programs as well as for AFDC families in the two areas. Nearly three times as many families on the average in nonmetropolitan areas (9 percent) received social security (OASDI) payments as did metropolitan families. In contrast, slightly above half as many nonmetropolitan than metropolitan families resided in public housing (9 percent and 15 percent, respectively), because of the greater availability of such housing in metropolitan areas. (Of the 1.7 million public housing units nationwide in October 1974, 1.35 million were in metropolitan areas.)

It should be noted that there is a special Work Incentive Program (WIN) to help develop job-oriented skills for adults receiving AFDC assistance. The WIN program, which uses Labor Department manpower training and other services, is intended to make a major impact on those areas where the greatest number of unemployed people and people receiving AFDC benefits is located.

Part II

SELECTED INITIATIVES IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The following section presents examples of efforts of several Federal agencies to improve or expand the delivery of services in certain key areas--health care, manpower and employment, housing, fire prevention and control, and services to the handicapped--the last named, a subject not given attention in any previous report in this series. Also discussed are new educational trends and reforms in this country. In addition, this section briefly describes recent Federal efforts to improve governmental and private decisionmakers' access to rural development situation information, and efforts to improve local communities' access to development program information.

HEALTH CARE

Recent initiatives of HEW in the area of rural health care are discussed below. Emphasized in this paper are Rural Health Initiative and Health Underserved Rural Areas projects, the two primary new HEW efforts relating to rural health care.

Rural Health Initiative

The Public Health Service's Rural Health Initiative (RHI) is an administrative effort to integrate a number of Federal health programs to improve the delivery of health care to rural residents. Under the RHI, grants and technical assistance may be given to local nonprofit organizations and groups to support the development of rural health care delivery systems.

HEW programs that can be used in RHI projects include the National Health Service Corps Program; Migrant Health Program; Community Health Centers Program; Appalachian Health Program; and Health Underserved Rural Areas Program. In addition to using resources of these programs, local RHI projects may also use resources from other Federal programs to develop rural health care systems. Such systems should also be coordinated with local resources, such as home health services, school health services, and local transportation services.

In seeking to combine existing elements of rural health care programs into integrated units, the RHI aims to demonstrate how local comprehensive rural health care systems can be formed that are not only self-sufficient but that also provide career opportunities to attract and retain physicians and other health professionals in rural communities. All Rural Health Initiative projects provide physicians' services--preventive, diagnostic, and therapeutic; emergency medical services including transportation; laboratory and X-ray services; and linkages for hospitalization.

The RHI is being instituted in areas that are characterized by low population density; high proportions of elderly, poor, or uneducated citizens; poor transportation; and low physician/patient ratios. Access to medical services is difficult in many of these areas and impossible in others. Fewer rural people have health care plans, and third-party reimbursement rates are lower for those who do have coverage. There are fewer personnel, fewer facilities, and poorer access to those facilities that do exist.

Health Underserved Rural Areas

The Health Underserved Rural Areas (HURA) Program is a project grant program for rural health research and demonstration administered as a key component of the RHI. The program is authorized under the Social Security Act, which is the research authority of the Social and Rehabilitation Service. It is funded by Title XIX (Medicaid) program funds. This research and demon-

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NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Bureau of Community Health Services, Public Health Service, HEW.

stration program has two principal goals:

(1) To integrate primary care services into a complete system of health care delivery that is financially viable, professionally attractive, and able to become self-sustaining. Within that goal are several specific objectives including services integration with the Early and Periodic Screening, Diagnostic, and Treatment Program, Maternal and Child Health Program, and the cancer screening programs of the National Cancer Institute. The program is also concerned with physician recruitment and retention, use of nurse practitioners and physician assistants, and the application of technology.

(2) To develop mechanisms to provide better health care to the Medicaid eligible population. Within this goal are objectives such as integrating the Medicaid eligible population into a single health care delivery system for rural areas to increase numbers of providers accepting Medicaid patients; and directly involving State Medicaid Agencies in experimentation around issues of eligibility, scope of service, and financing health services to Medicaid eligible populations.

RHI and HURA Statistical Summary

Within the United States there are 1,888 counties in nonmetropolitan areas (non-Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas) designated in whole or part as medically underserved. Of the 41.5 million Americans living in medically underserved areas in October 1976, 31 million were nonmetropolitan residents. Using this indicator plus others for medical or dental health manpower shortage areas, areas of highest infant mortality, and high migrant impact areas, RHI priority has been given to those geographic areas demonstrating the greatest need for health services. As a result of the grant support now provided to the 191 primary care projects supported through the RHI, including the HURA Program, 459 nonmetropolitan counties will be receiving services. Included are parts or all of 375 nonmetropolitan counties designated as medically underserved, 146 counties designated as critical health manpower shortage areas,and 180 counties of high infant mortality. (The same county may be in more than one category.) In addition, 6 of the 13 high migrant impact areas in nonmetropolitan areas not previously served will now be receiving services through RHI projects.

To the 42 RHI projects begun in fiscal 1975, 96 new projects were started in fiscal 1976. The number of HURA projects--either discrete projects or ones that are components of RHI projects--was increased from the original 9 to a total of 53 projects in fiscal 1976. A total of $17.2 million from the Public Health Services Act and $9.6 million in grants to States for the Medical Assistance program (Medicaid) was allocated in fiscal 1976 to support these 191 projects. Additional financial support for these rural projects came from the integration of certain administrative activities within the Public Health Service, and $400,000 was made available from Medicaid funds (Title XIX of the Social Security Act) for technical assistance and research and demonstration activities in RHI and HURA projects.

As mentioned earlier, HURA projects are HEW's primary vehicle for carrying

out rural health research and demonstration activities. Seven HURA projects received grant funds in fiscal 1976 for the developing and implementing of a patient tracking methodology. Grant funds were awarded for a process evaluation for seven demonstration projects. Grant funds were awarded to three State Medicaid agencies to enable an assessment of their financial impact on rural health services delivery. Demonstration activities in biomedical communication in rural areas have been approved and will be carried out in cooperation with the National Center for Health Services Research, National Library of Medicine, and HURA projects.

The Public Health Service has initiated a management information system that will provide information on the impact of various PHS programs in rural areas, including the Rural Health Initiative. Data are expected to be available in mid-1977.

New Health Coordination Efforts

A key element of recent HEW efforts, as should be evident from the material just presented, is a striving for program coordination and integration. The purpose is to enhance maximum utilization of resources, while eliminating fragmentation and/or duplication of health care services. It is anticipated that these efforts will also result in closer ties between the public and private sectors of health care delivery at the local and State levels and therefore help establish a firmer base for rural health care delivery systems.

The progress in integration of PHS programs in RHI projects is an example of the coordination emphasis being exerted to improve delivery of Federal health resources. Ninety-four of the 191 RHI and HURA projects have received approval for National Health Service Corps staff. Referral and consultation relationships with Community Mental Health Centers have been developed or are in the process of being developed in 82 of the projects. Linkages with alcoholism programs have been or are in the process of being developed in 51 of the projects. As a further example, a continuing educational program for professional staff in all National Health Service Corps sites has been developed through the cooperation of the Health Resources Administration and the National Library of Medicine. Additional linkages of Bureau of Community Health Services administered programs, such as the Migrant Health and Appalachian Regional Programs, are continuing, along with expansion into new areas, such as the Area Health Education Centers supported through the Health Resources Administration, the Drug Abuse Program of the Alcohol, Drug Abuse, and Mental Health Administration; Cervical Cytology Clinics and Breast Cancer Detection supported by the National Institutes of Health; and the food supplement program of the Department of Agriculture.

In addition, each HEW regional office has assigned a staff member to serve as a coordinating contact for RHI activities. Technical assistance contracts have been awarded to assist the projects in organizing and maximizing the delivery of health care services. The transfer of the Health Underserved Rural Areas Program to the Public Health Service from the Social and Rehabilitation Service and the assigning of the day-to-day responsibility for

operation management for the HURA Program to the regional offices are additional examples of HEW efforts to give stronger direction to the Rural Health Initiative through coordination.

Coordination actions have also been taken by HEW in joint consultation and action with the Department of Agriculture. For example, the Rural Health Coordination Committee of the Public Health Service has been expanded to include representatives not only from the Office of Rural Development in HEW's Office of the Assistant Secretary for Human Development but also from USDA's Rural Development Service. Also, the Rural Health Coordinating Committee has voted to recommend the addition of the Chairperson of the Health Subcommittee of USDA's National Rural Development Committee to the RHCC. Additionally, this USDA subcommittee has invited to attend its meeting, the director of the Office of Rural Development in HEW.

MANPOWER AND EMPLOYMENT

The creation within the Under Secretary's Office of the position of Special Assistant for Rural Affairs marked the Department of Labor's first deliberate step to develop and coordinate an overall policy for rural areas. This major step has provided the basis for new initiatives directed toward the development of national policies to assure Federal commitment to an equitable delivery of resources and an improved quality of service provided to the rural population.

Specifically, the Department of Labor has recognized the need to create human resource development strategies that will link the training needs of the growing rural population with the skill needs of evolving rural labor markets. It is taking steps that will lead to the development of a national policy and the development and implementation of a comprehensive human resource development strategy that systematically and comprehensively addresses those employment/manpower problems within the rural context in which they exist.

In addition to developing a policy and delivery systems specifically tailored to the special needs and characteristics of rural areas, a second goal envisioned by the Department is to allocate its dollar support, service and enforcement personnel, technical assistance, and all other resources equitably to rural areas.

Proposed departmental objectives that have been suggested as being appropriate and consistent with the above policy goals include:

*Development of a data base for the allocation of departmental resources to rural areas, including an analysis of the statistical bases used in the allocation process.

*Monitoring of fiscal year 1978 allocation of all departmental resources to achieve an equitable distribution of resources to rural areas.

*Development of a comprehensive plan that would include ways to improve the delivery of services to make current programs more effective; new program approaches; programatic suggestions; and, if necessary, suggested legislative initiatives. This plan would require: (1) analysis of all departmental procedures and delivery systems to determine their effectiveness given the unique characteristics of the rural areas and population to be served, and (2) analysis of available rural market labor data to assess the kinds of changes and initiatives necessary to make programs consistent with need.

Consistent with these efforts, the Department, through its Office of the Under Secretary, called a meeting for late 1976 with people from the public and private sectors from all parts of the country whose professional interests are focused on rural labor problems and whose expertise derives from direct working relationships with or study of rural populations. This one-day Rural Policy Meeting was designed to discuss those issues and policies concerning the rural labor force and its problems. Its results are providing substantial input

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NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Rural Development Service, USDA in cooperation with the Special Assistant (for Rural Affairs) to the Under Secretary U. S. Department of Labor.

to the process of developing a departmental rural human resources policy. The central issues focused on at the meeting and considered essential in developing a rural manpower strategy include:

*Meeting the shortfall in jobs and employment opportunities in rural areas.

*Developing new approaches for providing the occupational and other skills required in the rural labor market.

*Clarifying the income relationship between jobs and welfare and food stamps.

*Improving the quality of rural employment opportunities.

*Factors determining equity of access in rural areas.

*Improving data on rural areas.

*Migrant housing enforcement.

In addition to the main initiatives discussed above, the Department of Labor has taken the lead in proposing the establishment of an Interagency Committee on Farmworker Issues as a special purpose subgroup of the Under Secretary's Group to be chaired by the Department of Labor. The Committee's major purpose will be to act as a mechanism for the development and implementation of a coherent and cohesive national strategy on farmworker concerns. Agencies to be represented are Environmental Protection Agency, Health, Education and Welfare, Housing and Urban Development, Community Services Administration, and Agriculture.

Further evidence of the Department of Labor's increasing recognition of the needs of rural areas can be found in the fact that five special rurally oriented projects have been implemented through the use of discretionary funds under Title 3 of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (Sec. 301 and 304). These monies were allocated to the Department of Labor Regional Offices to solicit and fund a limited number of proposals that will provide innovative and replicable projects designed to serve selected segments of the population. A brief synopsis of the rural projects follows:

Virginia - $283,433 - Mobile Educational Training--This project is expected to serve 240 people in addressing the joint problems of transportation and remedial education. The program will be taken to the participants by use of job-mobiles at work sites or community gathering points near their homes. These mobile learning centers will be staffed by teachers experienced in remedial or job-related education and will provide preparation for high school equivalency and job-related education needed for entering and participating in the job market. In addition, participants will be provided assistance in obtaining employment.

New York - $187,455.04 - Agricultural Training Program--Twenty persons will be trained in various aspects of farm operations in Phase I of this project through a contract with the New York State Agricultural and Technical College (NYSATC). Emphasis will be placed on maintenance of farm equipment, milking procedures, feeding, and farm management during a 5-month course of education

and practical experience. A second phase will train 30 young adults as farm equipment operators through a 4- to 5-week on-the-job-training course. In addition to NYSATC, supervised site visits to farms and a series of personnel management seminars for the farm owners and managers will be held in cooperation with the St. Lawrence County Extension Service. Every effort will be made to match acquired skills with farm needs and to help trainees stay in the farm jobs used for training. The preference for participants includes those unemployed who have a background in farming.

California - $175,527 - Job Training for Women in Rural Areas--This project anticipates strenthening and expanding job opportunities for 200 women. Employment information, training and workshops will be provided to eliminate artificial barriers and allow women to have an opportunity for jobs in management, technical, and skilled trade jobs. The project sponsor anticipates (1) locating jobs that women can hold but have not obtained because of the fact that they are women and (2) a matching process that will link potential clients with available jobs. Emphasis will be placed on reaching the low income and/or disadvantaged. Transportation, child care, and language instruction will also be provided to participants if needed.

New Hampshire - $100,000 - Career Assessment and Development Program--This will be a concentrated work experience program for 86 persons. The objective is to increase the employability of the low-income person by focusing on job development. In an 8-week course, this project will concentrate on the assessment and, where necessary, augmentation of educational competency and occupational skills. It will include educational testing, vocational counseling, and coping and job-seeking skills. There will also be exploration for on-the-job work opportunities.

Georgia - $400,000 - Georgia Rural Skill Center for Youth--This project anticipates serving 100 youth through the Office of the Governor as prime sponsor for balance-of-State areas in Georgia. The youth will be selected from all balance-of-State areas and enrolled in a 1-year course in agribusiness. In cooperation with the Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College, the students will be provided a mixture of classroom training and first-hand experience in farm management and operations. They will live on campus and receive a small stipend in addition to room, board, and tuition. They will have opportunities to run large farm equipment and perform maintenance on some at nearby farms. The project sponsor anticipates employment being secured by the participants upon completion of the course in their local areas if they choose not to become self-employed as farmers.

EDUCATION

PROMISING DEVELOPMENTS

The past decade has witnessed the advent of several educational trends and reforms which impart a sense of hope for the future. Among these promising developments are the creation of multidistrict educational service agencies, the growth of the community college movement in rural areas, the emergence of several rural school improvement projects, and the community development movement being sponsored by land grant colleges under the stimulus of the Rural Development Act.

Multidistrict Education Service Agencies--The movement to organize Regional Educational Service Agencies (RESA) throughout America is gaining momentum and probably represerts the most significant innovation in education governance in America today. According to recent studies by Bob Stephens, University of Maryland, there are now more than 400 organized Regional Educational Service Agencies.

Some of these agencies are so new they are still embryonic. Some have been around for a number of years and are well-established, mature institutions. A wise variety of governance, programing, financing, and staffing patterns characterize these agencies and even within a single State there is a great deal of diversity in the way RESA's are organized and operate.

According to a recent survey by Walter G. Turner, Longmont, Colorado, the following programs and services were the most frequently cited by Regional Educational Service Agencies:

Programs	Services
Special Education	Inservice Training
Remedial Reading	Consultant Services
Career Education	Planning
Vocational Education	Evaluation
	Materials Selection
	Information Dissemination

Thus, through Regional Educational Service Agencies, students attending rural schools have access to many specialized programs, services, and materials not generally available in sparsely populated, remote small districts.

Rural Community Colleges--Rural community colleges are increasing in number and changing the nature of their services. The result is that rural people are increasingly gaining access to the benefits of higher education formerly denied them because of their remoteness from the larger educational institution.

In Eastern Washington, the community colleges in Winatchee, Moses Lake, and Spokane are collaborating with Washington State University to bring the services of the university to their constituents. In New York State, the

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NOTE: This paper was prepared by Rowan Stutz, Utah State Board of Education.

Boards of Cooperative Educational Services have joined with community colleges to give rural citizens more ready access to higher education.

The type of higher education being provided has changed, too. Instead of offering only traditional college courses, community colleges in rural areas are earnestly seeking to be responsive to people's needs. In this regard they are listening to the needs of people for information, skills, and services related to the problems currently facing them as well as those needs related to their long-range goals. Armed with these kinds of needs-information, community colleges are designing educational programs that help communities with their rural development activities, that help individuals gain the skills and knowledge needed for greater success in their current enterprises, and that enable them to realize their long-range aspirations.

Rural School Improvement Projects--The past decade has seen a concerted effort to solve some of the unique educational problems of rural schools. The Ford Foundation-funded Western States Small Schools Project of the 1960's in Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, and Utah; the ongoing 8-year-old Rural Education Program at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory; the Alaska Small Schools Project; the Oregon Small Schools Project; and the Catskill Area Small Schools Project are a few of the more significant rural school improvement projects that have directly confronted the great diversity of educational needs, goals, and conditions found in America's broad spectrum of rural communities. These projects have been characterized by one or the other of two strategies for small school improvement, each effective in its own particular way.

One approach has been to attack directly the limitations imposed by small size, remoteness, sparsity, and limited resources. Out of this effort stems the school district reorganization and school consolidation efforts. It is also toward the elimination of some of the limitations of small schools that such programs as multiple classes, correspondence courses, ETV for rural schools, shared services, traveling teachers, and mobile laboratories are directed.

Another approach to small school improvement has been to maximize the strengths of small schools and capitalize upon their unique resources. Such efforts have focused upon new ways of organizing the small school to utilize its inherent flexibility, and upon the full use of community resources for career development and of the out-of-doors for environmental and related studies. Some of these efforts, with the help of the National Facilities Laboratory, have explored new designs for rural school buildings that would allow flexibility in scheduling and multiple use of space, and facilitate small group and pupil-directed instruction. The "learning barn," where a team of teachers and resources are at once available to the entire high school student body, is one of the results of this effort.

New ways of providing continuous professional development opportunities to teachers in remote rural schools, survival training for "bush" teachers, instruction methods that have capitalized upon the small size of classes and still recognized student diversity, and new applications of instructional technology have characterized other projects that have sought to release the potential strengths of rural schools.

Community Development--With school district reorganization and the increasing professionalization of educational decisionmaking, citizens in many rural districts have become as estranged from their schools as are many of their metropolitan cousins. Recently, however, under the stimulus of the Rural Development Act, land grant colleges in cooperation with community colleges, county commissions, and boards of education are finding ways of involving citizens in comprehensive community development including educational development. In Washington State, for example, the Kellog Foundation has provided funds to supplement Federal funds for a four-county 5-year rural development project. The project, managed by Washington State University, has two goals: (1) provide the mechanisms and build the capacity of citizens for participatory democracy and (2) develop a cooperative network of agencies that have resources and services to support community development so that they will collaborate rather than compete in delivering these resources and services to local problem-solving groups.

Expressions of these four categories of promising developments may be found in nearly every part of rural America. However, not all communities and individuals have been touched by them as yet. Whether these new developments will retain a uniquely rural orientation instead of trying to imitate urban models, is still an open question. However, if they are successful, their potential for being of genuine assistance to rural schools and rural communities is enormous.

HOUSING

Recognizing the need for better access to Federal housing programs by low-income residents of rural areas, the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) and the Department of Agriculture (USDA) have entered into a cooperative agreement for a 2-year out-reach demonstration program. Four States will be selected to receive HUD grants to help assist them in finding ways to improve delivery of housing and community development services to low-income persons, including the handicapped and the elderly. The program will be implemented with HUD Community Development Block Grant funding of $2.5 million; up to $35 million in Farmers Home Administration (FmHA) housing assistance; and, up to $5 million in FmHA community program funds. An additional $500,000 will be provided by HUD over a 2-year period to offset the State's administrative costs in implementing the demonstration. All of these funds will be divided among the four States selected to participate.

The demonstration emphasizes the role of States in housing and community development. States are required to establish the delivery mechanism and to assess the housing needs of the target areas. There is no prescribed use of the funds except that they must be used in accordance with current regulations for the program. In this way, States will make the decision as to the types of community infrastructure needed, the type of housing needed to address the needs of the residents of the target areas, and the type of mechanism best suited for the individual State in delivering these services. The demonstration has an evaluation component which will make the transferability and the degree of success and failure of the demonstration available to other States implementing or interested in starting their own programs.

The FmHA money will be provided to FmHA State Directors over and above existing allocations. Although the immediate impact will be in the target areas, both agencies foresee the demonstration as leading toward a more coordinated approach to rural development. The preliminary applications are due in February 1977, and the actual funds should be available to the selected States in June 1977. Both Departments are also considering ways to support those States which have developed plans but which are not selected to participate.

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The Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) and the Farmers Home Administration (FmHA) of the U.S. Department of Agriculture have joined together to provide quicker processing of applications for newly constructed housing for lower income families in rural areas. In a Memorandum of Understanding, executed on June 23, 1976, HUD and FmHA agreed to make certain revisions in their operating procedures to encourage and facilitate the use of Section 8 Housing Assistance Payments, and Section 515 Rural Rental Housing Loans. Under this agreement, HUD set aside 14,000 Section 8 units specifically for join applications during FY 1976 and FY 1977. The effect of the memorandum is to accelerate the construction of rental housing for lower income households who need greater rental subsidies than the Section 515 program's interest reduction could provide.

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Rural Development Service, USDA.

Although Section 8 has been used with Section 515 on a limited basis prior to the Memorandum, the agreement facilitates the process. Sponsors of rural rental housing, seeking to use Section 8 subsidies, will now have applications processed only by FmHA, who will, in turn, submit the preapplication information to HUD for their determination of whether Section 8 funds are available and can be used with the project. FmHA will certify to HUD the projects compliance with specifications and other conditions upon completion, at which time HUD will enter into a Housing Assistance Payments Contract with the owner and will monitor for Section 8 contract compliance.

The Memorandum of Understanding basically calls for HUD to accept certifications from FmHA on contract and fair market rents, site and neighborhood standards, equal opportunity requirements, environmental standards, and Davis-Bacon wage rates. FmHA has agreed to provide a 1-percent interest credit below market rate of 515/Section 8, New Construction Projects.

One of the off-shoots of the Memorandum of Understanding will be a closer working relationship between the Department of Housing and Urban Development and the Farmers Home Administration. Although housing is but one facet of rural development, this relationship should heighten the effectiveness of both agencies in providing housing and related assistance to rural areas.

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Energy and Housing

Rural residents--especially those on low or fixed incomes--have been hard hit by rising energy costs. Many find it increasingly difficult to cope with the economic pressure being placed on them as a result of steadily escalating fuel and utility bills. Development of alternative sources of energy and implementation of sound energy conservation measures are essential to the future economic well-being of these rural residents and countless other Americans in similar circumstances.

The application of solar heating technology to rural housing holds great potential for meeting rural energy needs at reasonable costs. One of the most formidable obstacles to realization of this potential, however, is the current high initial cost of available solar heating systems. The development of inexpensive effective systems is necessary to put solar energy within the practical reach of low-income rural people who live in low-cost housing.

The Rural Development Service in the Department of Agriculture is authorized by statute and regulation to engage in coordination and research activities related to a variety of rural development problems, including those of rural housing and the adjustments of rural people and communities to changing economic and technical forces. In conformance with this authority and out of concern over the national energy problem, RDS has undertaken the coordination of several new initiatives designed to stimulate the development of low-cost solar heating systems for rural housing. Actions to date include:

*Initiation of a joint effort with the Farmers Home Administration, the Agricultural Research Service, and the Forest Service to test the feasibility of

low-cost solar heating applications for low-income rural housing of the type financed by the Farmers Home Administration. The Agricultural Research Service's Rural Housing Research Unit at Clemson, South Carolina, has designed and is testing two solar heating systems on residences provided by the Farmers Home Administration. The Forest Products Laboratory at Madison, Wisconsin, is testing the performance of wood in solar collectors.

*Entry into a cooperative program with the Energy Research and Development Administration for testing of a prototype forced-air retrofit solar hearing unit designed under an ERDA contract. The project will involve Arizona State University, South Dakota State University, the Farmers Home Administration, the Cooperative Extension Service, the Agricultural Research Service, and other U.S. Department of Agriculture agencies. Testing will be conducted at the two universities. The unit at Arizona State University will be attached to a residence provided by the Farmers Home Administration.

*Cooperation with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and the Farmers Home Administration to facilitate the selection of FmHA residences for use in NASA's solar demonstration program, and to encourage emphasis on low-cost solar designs and applications for those residences.

FIRE PREVENTION AND CONTROL

The Federal Government acknowledged the need for improved fire protection in the Nation's rural areas and small communities when the 93rd Congress passed the Federal Fire Prevention and Control Act of 1974 (PL 93-498). This congressional action resulted from the thoughtful recommendations of the National Commission on Fire Prevention and Control as written in its report, America Burning. Two chapters in this report were devoted to the problems of fires in the rural environment. As a result of the emphasis placed on the rural fire problem in the report, one section of the Public Law was devoted to the rural fire problem. It authorized the National Fire Prevention and Control Administration (NFPCA), the agency authorized by the Act in October 1974, to sponsor and encourage through grants and contracts, research into approaches, techniques, systems, and equipment to improve fire prevention and control in the rural and remote areas of the Nation. NFPCA is made up of four divisions: the National Academy for Fire Prevention and Control; the Fire Safety, Planning, Research, and Technology Office; the Public Education Office; and the National Fire Data Center.

The NFPCA has begun several new initiatives to assist rural communities in fire prevention and control. One of these initiatives is in the area of rural "master planning."

The concept of "master planning for fire prevention and control" was heavily emphasized in the Federal Fire Prevention and Control Act as a means for the total community, whether rural or urban, to assess its current fire situation, anticipate future needs, and create an affordable "plan" to solve both problems. To initiate these efforts, the NFPCA awarded a grant to the State of Oklahoma Fire Marshal to develop a step-by-step manual to assist communities in carrying out the master planning process. The manual, entitled "Fire Prevention and Control Master Planning for Small Communities and Rural Areas," is currently being field tested in 14 small communities around the country representing different geographical locations, populations, and types of communities (such as unincorporated areas, settlements, and countywide areas).

The purpose of the manual is to guide interested people in improving their fire protection through the use of systematic planning. Following the procedures in the manual should result in the selection of a fire protection concept, a legal and financial start-up plan, and a clear decision as to whether a more detailed fire protection master plan is necessary. Fire protection master plans thus can be expected to include:

*A survey of the resources and personnel of any existing fire services, and an analysis of the effectiveness of any locally applicable fire and building codes.

*An analysis of short-term and long-term local fire prevention and control needs.

*A plan to meet the identified fire defense needs.

NOTE: This paper was prepared in cooperation with the National Fire Safety and Research Office and the National Fire Data Center, both in the National Fire Prevention and Control Administration.

*An estimate of the costs of putting the plan into operation, and realistic methods for financing.

*Estimates of the yearly operating costs of the fire protection system.

*Information about problems that are anticipated in putting the master plan into operation.

The manual "Fire Prevention and Control Master Planning for Small Communities and Rural Areas" will be available for public distribution and use by fall of 1977.

Additional NFPCA efforts in rural fire prevention and control include the following:

*The National Fire Data Center has marked the collection of rural fire data as an item of special concern. Emphasis is being placed on improving the quality and scope of data from rural fire departments in the National Fire Incident Reporting System, which was established in 1976. The Center is paying particular attention to getting more reliable and complete information from volunteer fire departments so that the dimensions and characteristics of the rural fire problem will be better defined. Data on rural fires are also being collected from other sources, such as the National Household Fire Survey, which collected data on unreported as well as reported fires.

*The Public Education Office of the NFPCA has developed a rural fire safety education manual, in cooperation with the West Virginia Fire Service Extension of the University of West Virginia at Morgantown. That office is also working with Buffalo Creek, W.Va., in a demonstration project on problems in rural fire safety education.

*Another active program of great potential value to the rural population is the NFPCA's campaign to encourage the installation of home smoke detectors. These units, which provide early warning of a fire and can alert occupants in time for them to escape, are a critical part of a good home fire safety program.

*The NFPCA's National Fire Academy is starting an ambitious outreach program to bring management skills and fire safety training to fire departments that currently have no access to such training.

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In contrast to the new NFPCA, with its responsibility for fire prevention and control in all areas of the country, both rural and urban, the U.S. Department of Agriculture has long had fire-related responsibilities on the national forests and in wildlands. USDA responsibilities were enlarged under the 1972 Rural Development Act, which authorized the Rural Community Fire Protection pilot program. During FY 1975, approximately $3.5 million was appropriated by Congress for the pilot test. Over 2,000 applications were approved for assistance under this program, which achieved the following accomplishments: 19 fire

departments were organized, 18 communities were able to achieve improved insurance rates, 240 fire trucks were assigned to volunteer fire departments, and 18,000 firefighters were trained. The response to this Rural Community Fire Protection pilot test is also providing important indicators as to the status of rural fire protection and rural community needs. A complete report and analysis of the pilot project will be submitted to Congress during FY 1977.

Experience thus far indicates that the National Fire Prevention and Control Administration programs and the Rural Development Act community fire protection effort are highly complementary. NFPCA, which has no grant authority for provision of equipment and training, receives a substantial number of requests for financial assistance for these purposes. These requests are referred to the Rural Development Act program officers where appropriate.

Fire in forests and wildlands are a part of the rural fire problem which has already received the attention of a number of agencies of the Federal Government with some considerable success. The Secretaries of Agriculture and Interior, in cooperation with the Association of State Foresters, have appointed a National Wildfire Coordinating Group to coordinate national wildfire programs to prevent duplication of effort and improve the efficiency of wildfire protection. The National Wildfire Coordinating Group presently has active task forces working in training, fire retardance, equipment development, air operations, fire prevention, communications, and fire planning. The task forces are to address in part wildfire problems as related to wildland and urban-wildland interfacing. Close liaison is maintained with the NFPCA.

SERVICES TO THE HANDICAPPED

HEW's Rehabilitation Services Administration (RSA) was authorized under the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (P.L. 93-112) and subsequent amendments to provide 80 percent Federal matching grants to State vocational rehabilitation agencies for services to handicapped individuals, serving first those with the most severe handicaps so that they may prepare for and engage in gainful employment. The services include referral, counseling, guidance and placement, physical and mental restoration (medical and corrective surgical treatment), hospitalization, prosthetic and orthotic appliances, training, work adjustment, transportation, maintenance, mobility services for the blind, and post-employment services.

It is estimated that there are some 7 million handicapped people in the United States who might benefit from vocational rehabilitation services. The effect of the 1973 legislation and amendments has been to strengthen Federal support of programs to assist these people.

In rural areas, problems of serving the handicapped are being overcome by efforts to improve transportation opportunities, by use of mobile diagnostic and evaluation laboratories, and by increasing the number of rehabilitation facilities and workshops that provide residential accommodations for rural clients. State agencies are also encouraging the present efforts of the President's Committee on the Employment of the Handicapped to work with the Cooperative Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture to establish a joint program to enable handicapped rural people who can benefit from rehabilitation and placement to utilize such services. Although there are as yet few formal statewide cooperative programs with the Extension Service at the State level, there are a number of informal arrangements between service-providing agencies and Extension offices at the local level.

While the major thrust of the basic State-Federal vocational rehabilitation programs are statewide, some projects are specifically aimed at special target populations and disability categories. Included are a number of grant authorities that are funding research and demonstration and other pioneer and expansion efforts in meeting particular problems of the rural disabled and increasing services to them. Examples of projects to assist rural residents are discussed below.

Innovation and Expansion Projects

In FY 1975, 10 projects involving about $590,000 either initiated or expanded services to particular groups of the rural disabled. Five of these provided mobile services to disabled Native Americans on reservations and in remote rural areas, eye examinations for the homebound, home management for the homebound blind, and diagnostic services for the mentally retarded and mentally ill. Other projects served those disabled by Sickle Cell Anemia and provided special vocational evaluation, work adjustment, and placement services to the rural deaf and the hard of hearing.

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Office of Handicapped Individuals and the Rehabilitation Services Administration, both in the Office of Human Development, HEW.

Client Assistance Projects

Client assistance projects are authorized to improve the vocational rehabilitation program by providing ombudsmen to work directly with handicapped clients or applicants. Of the 19 projects operated by the States, two are directly concerned with assisting the rural disabled.

A project in North Dakota serves a 10-county area covering part of the Standing Rock and Fort Berthold Indian reservations. In FY 1975, 135 handicapped Native Americans were provided assistance and guidance in their vocational rehabilitation problems.

A project in the State of Washington served one rural and one urban site to meet the needs of the disabled and also to compare rural/urban differences in need. Some 304 disabled individuals received services, including the rural Native American communities of Olympia, Shelton, and Aberdeen. This project emphasizes outreach to the eight separate Indian reservations, where it is believed that travel restrictions prevent many handicapped individuals who could qualify and benefit from vocational rehabilitation from applying for services.

Farmworker Projects

RSA has had a long interest in the vocational rehabilitation of disabled farmworkers. For many years the State vocational rehabilitation agencies have served migratory workers and their disabled family members despite problems of providing services to very mobile clients. Two national training conferences were conducted by RSA in fiscal years 1974 and 1975 in Washington, D.C., and San Antonio, Texas, with migrant vocational rehabilitation project directors and State agencies, as well as representatives of other agencies such as the Departments of Agriculture and Labor. The conferences urged all State vocational rehabilitation programs to improve the provision of services to handicapped migratory laborers and seasonal farmworkers and to develop a follow-up system to assist them after they leave the State in cases where services were initiated and not completed. Other recommendations included the development of bilingual instruction materials and instruction at projects located in areas of large Spanish-speaking populations. Further, content on migratory workers and seasonal farmworkers was introduced into the counselor training programs. States with large numbers of migratory workers were urged to include this as a high-priority target group within their State plans.

RSA has provided $735,000 grant support to State vocational rehabilitation agencies for the conduct of migratory worker projects in California, Florida, Idaho, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Texas, and Wisconsin. In FY 1975, 4,200 handicapped migrants were served and 1,425 were rehabilitated into employment through these projects.

An example of these projects is the one in the Belle Glade area of Palm Beach County, Florida. Some 15,000 seasonal farmworkers and some 5,000 migrant workers assist in the large vegetable and sugar cane production operation in the area. The project uses the Glade's Habilitation Center at Lake Worth as a focus, with a staff of eight persons including two "area aides" who do most of the outreach to the disabled workers. Two buses are used to transport workers to

training and other services, which include lawn maintenance, food services, commercial sewing, and motel and domestic maid service. On-the-job training with community employers is used together with vocational-technical training programs in adult education available from the county schools to supplement the project's training and service program.

Projects Serving the Older Blind in Rural Areas

In FY 1975, four projects in Colorado, Texas, Oregon, and Arkansas received $523,000 in Federal support. These projects served 1,005 older rural blind and rehabilitated 344 into employment.

The Arkansas project uses a combination of a comprehensive rehabilitation center and service teams working with blind persons in comparatively rural areas. The Colorado program gives special attention to intensive services to older blind persons in selected mountainous counties in the State using a rehabilitation service team and available community services. Oregon is using a self-contained travel home staffed by a rehabilitation teacher and mobility instructor in serving older blind persons living in extreme isolation. Texas is delivering services to older blind persons who are also members of minority groups in a selected rural setting.

NATIONAL RURAL DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM

The provision of leadership and coordination for the many departments and agencies involved in rural development from within one department of the executive branch of Federal Government requires different approaches from those normally employed in line management of a program. With no line authority, it has been necessary for USDA's Rural Development Service to employ a variety of innovative approaches to meet the leadership and coordination mandate of Section 603 of the Rural Development Act of 1972.

The most recently developed approach will further help in carrying out this mandate. The Service has designed and is implementing an information system which will provide policy and program decisionmakers with up-to-date information and data reflecting the status of rural conditions and program performance heretofore unavailable.

The system, called the National Rural Development Information System (NRDIS), builds on the fact that many in the public and private sectors collect a wide variety of data and information describing and analyzing specific conditions in rural areas, and recognizes the need for a central source where those concerned about rural America could obtain needed information.

NRDIS will maintain a catalog of those routinely collecting and/or analyzing rural data and information at the national level and will select and incorporate the most timely and relevant data into the system. The status and performance data and information selected for inclusion in NRDIS will then be analyzed and interpreted for rural development implications, and reported to the Congress, Federal and state agencies, and public and private interest groups.

In addition, the system will prepare the required annual rural development reports (such as this annual Rural Development Progress report); routinely produce meaningful displays of a wide variety of rural development status and performance data; and quickly prepare many of the data-based special reports that the Rural Development Service is called on to produce.

A special feature of NRDIS is a "situation room" in which the most significant rural development status and performance data will be displayed using a variety of audio-visual techniques. The situation room will be used in briefing members of Congress, Federal and state executives, and public and private interest groups on the current rural situation.

Although NRDIS will use only data collected by others and will do no primary data collecting itself, it will encourage others to obtain data needed but not now being collected. For example, a methodology which can be used by States to collect data reflecting the availability of community facilities and services to rural residents as well as give indications of the perceptions of rural residents as to the adequacy of the services and facilities, has been developed and is currently being tested. Should the test be successful, each governor will be encouraged to conduct the survey.

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Rural Development Service, USDA.

PROGRAM INFORMATION ASSISTANCE FOR LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Developed by the Rural Development Service, USDA, the Federal Assistance Programs Retrieval System (FAPRS) is a computerized program information system that provides information concerning Federal aid programs to interested persons throughout the United States. It is designed to identify specific Federal aid programs for which a particular community may be eligible. FAPRS is presently available in almost every State through various Federal, State, and local organizations and agencies.

The system contains program information on approximately 600 Federal programs classified in 37 categories of community need, and eligibility information on all of the more than 3,300 counties in the Nation. In April of 1977, it will contain information on virtually all Federal domestic assistance programs, and the number of community-need categories will be increased from 37 to 82.

Operation of FAPRS requires no special knowledge of computers. The person requesting information provides his/her name, the name of the community for which assistance is needed, and the name of the county and State in which the community is located. The computer then proceeds to ask a series of questions about the community and the type of aid requested. The requestor then answers the computer's questions by typing his/her responses into a keyboard similar to that of a typewriter. The computer gives simple instructions about how these questions should be answered.

If the person is unsure of an answer, the computer has the capability to provide additional information which will enable the person to answer the question correctly. If, for example, the requestor is not sure about whether the community is within an EDA Redevelopment Area, the computer will provide a list of all counties in the applicant's State which are within these areas. The person requesting information need only know what type of aid is needed and the approximate population of the applicant community--the computer can provide assistance in answering other strategic questions.

This entire procedure takes only a few minutes, and once the computer program has been run one time for a specific community, a special short version of the program can be used, and the desired information can be obtained in even less time.

When all questions have been answered the computer prints out by program name and number all of the federally funded programs in the applicant's area of interest for which the applicant meets the basic eligibility criteria. These programs are keyed to the Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance, which facilitates the additional research required to identify the program best suited to the community's needs. The Catalog also provides the essential information needed to initiate the application procedure. In February 1977, FAPRS will be providing a more up-to-date version of the information now supplied by the Catalog.

NOTE: This paper was prepared by the Rural Development Service, USDA.

FAPRS is a quick, inexpensive program capable of identifying Federal aid programs responsive to the needs of communities. It aids smaller units of government, which are less experienced in the process of searching for Federal aid, by providing information to them that previously was available primarily to larger cities with their greater resources. FAPRS can also help experienced researchers by providing a definitive source of information about lesser known aid programs as well as the ones they are probably familiar with. Manual searches for the same information take much longer and cost substantially more.

Part III

STATE PERSPECTIVES ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT

SUMMARY

Introduction

The Governors of the 50 States were asked by the Rural Development Service to provide information on issues, goals, plans, and recommendations pertaining to their States' rural areas. The information received from the 40 responding States was screened for currency, relevancy, and geographic coverage, and the material from 21 was selected for a detailed content review. The geographic distribution of the 21 States selected is shown in figure 1. The population of the more densely shaded States live predominantly in Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas.

The findings of the detailed content review are organized by national rural development progress category (for example, income and employment). Within each category, the findings are arranged by rural development trend, concern, and response.

This summary of findings presents, except in the population and transportation categories, only those developmental responses which were shared by two or more States. The trends and concerns reported in the other categories are usually apparent from the way the response is worded. Furthermore, the responses are not usually stated to differentiate between those that are in the early recommendation stage and those that are closer to the implementation stage. The detailed content review which follows the summary makes these kinds of distinctions, and also presents the trends and concerns expressed by single States.

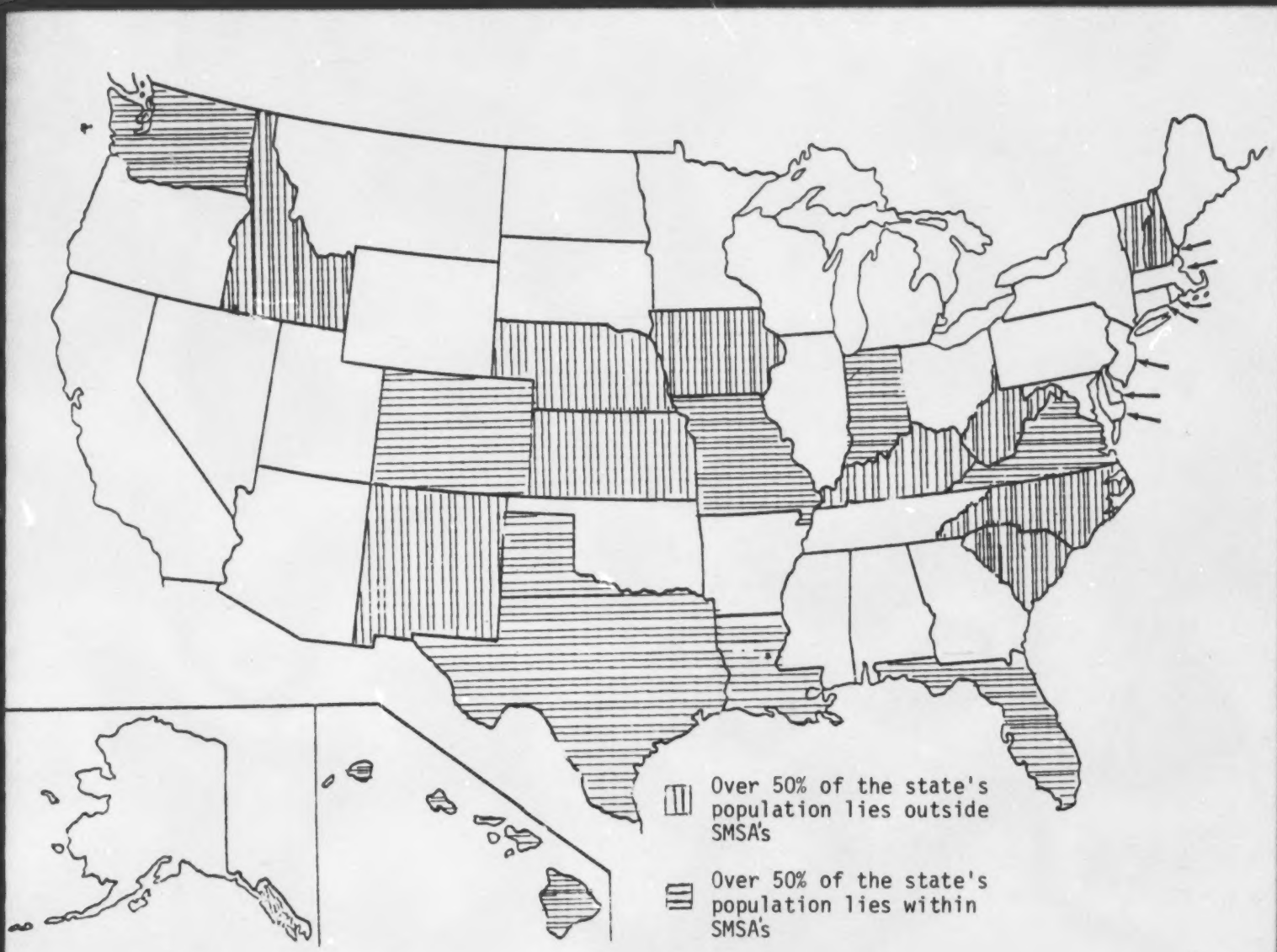
Income and Employment

For the most part, the 18 States that provided information relevant to the income and employment categories combined their discussions. Twelve of these States have predominantly nonmetropolitan populations (IA, ID, KS, KY, MT, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, VT, WVA). The majority of the population of the other seven (CO, HI, LA, TX, VA, WA) live in metropolitan areas. These States reported the following responses (either as goals or as actions already begun) to rural development income and employment concerns:

Support and improve manpower training and development programs. (KS, KY, NB, NC, VT, WVA, CO, TX, VA, WA) (10)

Develop, promote, and support programs and facilities for vocational-technical training, counseling, and placement services as well as adult education. (KS, NB, NC, VT, WVA, CO, TX, VA, WA) (9)

Develop a decentralized and diversified industrial base. (NB, NH, SC, HI, LA, TX, WA) (7)


Over 50% of the state's population lies outside SMSA's
Over 50% of the state's population lies within SMSA's

Expand existing industries in and attract new industries to nonmetropolitan areas. (ID, KY, NB, CO, LA, TX, WA) (7)

Develop employment services. (KY, NB, NC, WVA, TX, WA) (6)

Develop and support a State industrial development authority, commission, or corporation. (IA, VT, WVA, CO, HI, TX) (6)

Concentrate on the unemployed, underemployed, and economically disadvantaged. (KS, KY, SC, IN, WA) (5)

Eliminate discrimination in employment. (ID, KS, NC, SC, LA) (5)

Establish an economic development policy. (CO, LA, TX) (3)

Improve communication and cooperation among all three levels of government. (CO, HI, WA) (3)

Increase management and technical assistance to small farmers, businessmen, and industries located in nonmetropolitan areas. (CO, TX, WA) (3)

Provide adequate educational opportunities and day-care service for the children of workers, especially migrant workers. (NC, VT, LA) (3)

Alter State tax policies. (WVA, CO, HI) (3)

Issue industrial revenue bonds. (WVA, TX) (2)

Reverse the out-migration trend of the nonmetropolitan labor force. (SC, CO) (2)

Population

Information related to this rural development category was supplied by 15 of the 21 States. The majority of the population of six of these States (IA, ID, KS, KY, NC, VT) live in nonmetropolitan areas, while the population of the other nine States (CO, FL, HI, IN, LA, MO, TX, VA, WA) live predominantly in metropolitan areas. Of these 15 States:

*Ten States reported downward trends in their rural population due to a lack of job opportunity. (ID, KS, NC, CO, IN, LA, MO, TX, VA, WA)

*Eight States reported a growing over-65 population. (ID, KS, KY, HI, IN, LA, MO, TX)

*Seven reported growth rates lower than the national average. (ID, VT, FL, HI, TX, VA, WA) The other eight States reported a growth rate greater than the national average.

*Six States have developed and/or adopted growth policies. (KS, CO, FL, IN, VA, WA)

*Four States which are expecting a rapid increase in their population growth rate found through surveys that the majority of their citizens think the present population is about right. (ID, FL, HI, WA)

*Four States reported that blacks are more likely to live in metropolitan areas. (KY, MO, VA, TX)

*Three States reported that their Indian and Mexican-American population is about equally divided between metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas. (NC, LA, TX)

*One growing State (FL) found in a survey that its county commissioners would prefer a reduced population growth rate.

The States supplying population information reported the following responses:

*Six States say they want to promote a better balance between growing and depressed areas or an even geographical distribution in terms of population growth and economic activities. (KS, CO, FL, IN, VA, WA)

*Three States report that they are considering the use of the growth center strategy which focuses on the use of State planning regions or districts to encourage the development of population centers of a certain size. (CO, IN, LA)

*Two States recommend for adoption or consideration the use of the carrying capacity concept which is based on the prevention or reduction of overloads for environmental as well as natural and manmade resource systems. (FL, HI)

*Two States point out that they plan to consider using new towns as a growth center strategy. (CO, IN,)

*One State says it is considering the use of the growth cluster strategy or area development strategy--planning regions and districts are viewed in terms of the concentration of public investments in "areas" where the potential multiplier effect is greatest (IN)

*One State (LA) has established statewide population goals.

Housing

Fourteen of the 21 States provided material relative to housing. Nine of these States had predominantly nonmetropolitan populations (IA, ID, KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, SC, VT) and five, metropolitan (CO, HI, TX, VA, WA). The responses of these 14 States which were related to housing and which were shared by two or more States are:

Provide adequate housing for and eliminate discriminatory housing practices against all nonmetropolitan residents. (ID, KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, SC, VT, CO, HI, VA, WA) (12)

Establish statewide or regional housing authorities. (IA, KS, KY, SC, CO, HI, TX) (7)

Repair or replace most of the obsolete and dilapidated housing units in all and more especially declining nonmetropolitan areas. (IA, ID, KS, NC, NH, WA) (6)

Coordinate, disseminate, and analyze nonmetropolitan housing information related to programs, projects, and agencies as a means of planning for the future. (KS, NC, SC, CO, WA) (5)

Adopt a uniform, minimum statewide construction and housing code. (NC, NH, TX, VA, WA) (5)

Delegate to a State official or agency the authority to deposit State funds in nonmetropolitan institutions for the construction and rehabilitation of housing. (IA, CO, HI, WA) (4)

Sell bonds to provide seed money, construction loans, mortgages, and low-interest loans for low and moderate-income housing. (MT, NC, CO, TX) (4)

Provide technical advisory services in nonmetropolitan areas to deliver housing services to nonmetropolitan residents. (NB, VT, TX, WA) (4)

Adopt a State rural housing public policy. (KS, CO, TX) (3)

Research the innovative uses of construction and design techniques and materials to meet changing family needs and reduce housing construction costs. (NH, TX, WA) (3)

Appropriate funds for vocational-technical training in the building trades to provide low-cost housing and develop the nonmetropolitan skilled labor market. (TX, WA) (2)

Organize housing corporations. (SC, WA) (2)

Health

Eighteen of the 21 States provided information relevant to the health category; 11 had predominantly nonmetropolitan populations (IA, ID, KS, KY, MT, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, VT) and seven were predominantly metropolitan (CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA, WA). The review of the material supplied by these States identified the following developmental responses:

Build regional or areawide health care facilities and outpatient mental health centers or modernize existing health care facilities. (IA, ID, KS, MT, NB, NC, NH, NM, CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA) (14)

Establish or improve and support comprehensive facilities, services, and/or programs in nonmetropolitan areas for the elderly and migrant workers as well as for the treatment, education, prevention, and rehabilitation of the mentally and physically handicapped, emotionally and mentally disturbed, drug addicts, and alcoholics. (IA, KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, FL, IN, LA, TX, WA) (11)

Develop a continuous and comprehensive program which plans for, experiments with, and evaluates health care services and needs. (IA, ID, KS, NC, CO, FL, IN, TX, VA, WA) (10)

Control the costs of health care and/or provide assistance to the large numbers of nonmetropolitan residents who are unable to afford the expense of health care services. (IA, ID, KS, MT, NB, NC, FL, IN, VA, WA) (10)

Provide treatment to reduce communicable diseases and preventive health care services such as immunization, diagnostic and preventive screening, physical and dental examinations, maternal and infant care, and family planning. (ID, KS, NB, NC, FL, IN, LA, TX, WA) (9)

Motivate dentists, physicians, and para-professionals to work in nonmetropolitan and rural areas: (8)

> Award scholarships, grants, and loans to encourage students to practice in rural areas after they graduate. (CO, FL, LA, TX, VA, WA) (6)
>
> Establish continuing education programs in nonmetropolitan areas to train para-professionals and update their skills and knowledge. (KS, NC, CO, FL, VA, WA) (6)
>
> Provide clinical training, internships, and field training programs in rural areas. (CO, FL, TX) (3)
>
> Recruit students from rural areas who are interested in the health professions. (VA, WA) (2)
>
> Clarify or revise the legal constraints associated with malpractice by para-professionals and physicians. (VA, WA) (2)

Design and implement or strengthen locally based school and consumer health education programs. (ID, KS, KY, FL, IN, TX, VA, WA) (8)

Develop and operate emergency medical services programs which incorporate emergency ambulance service; programs to train, certify, and license local ambulance attendants and emergency room personnel; and communications equipment. (CO, FL, IN, TX, VA) (5)

Education

Twelve of the 19 States reporting developmental responses in the category of education had greater nonmetropolitan than metropolitan populations (IA, ID, KS, KY, MT, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, VT, WVA). The seven predominantly metropolitan States were CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA, WA. In summary, these 19 States reported an objective or some activity to:

Expand, improve, and make more efficient use of educational facilities in less densely populated areas and provide modern teaching materials and educational programs to nonmetropolitan students. (KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, VT, CO, FL, IN, TX) (12)

Design and deliver specialized educational services programs and/or facilities for exceptional students in every dimension. (KS, NB, NH, SC, WVA, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA, WA) (11)

Evaluate and plan for education at all levels of learning. (KS, NC, NM, WVA, CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, WA) (10)

Develop an equitable and adequate school finance program in nonmetropolitan and more especially rural areas. (ID, NB, NC, NH, SC, CO, FL, TX, VA, WA) (10)

Support and promote training programs and refresher courses for teachers and administrators at all levels. (KS, NB, NC, NH, FL, IN, LA, TX) (8)

Provide preschool or early childhood education for young children in nonmetropolitan areas. (KY, NB, NC, SC, WVA, FL, IN, TX, VA) (9)

Develop or improve appropriate support services in the form of guidance, placement, and counseling programs. (NC, WVA, FL, IN, LA, WA) (6)

Provide or expand high quality mass media resources and materials in nonmetropolitan areas. (IA, NB, NH, IN, TX, WA) (6)

Allow public school facilities in nonmetropolitan communities to be available for after-school activities. (FL, IN, TX, VA, WA) (5)

Expand and improve library facilities and services. (KY, NB, VT, IN, TX) (5)

Increase utilization of para-professional personnel to assist full-time, professional teachers. (KS, IN, TX, WA) (4)

Encourage students and citizens to become actively involved in the planning and implementation of educational programs. (NB, CO, WA) (3)

Water and Waste

Of the 16 States reporting on water and waste, the majority of the population of eight live in nonmetropolitan areas. (ID, KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, SC, VT). Eight States are predominantly metropolitan (CO, FL, HI, IN, LA, MO, TX, VA). The States reported the following concerns related to water and waste:

Eliminate pollution from water sources, especially streams, rivers, and lakes. (ID, KY, NC, NH, VT, HI, IN, LA) (8)

Identify, acquire, and protect known or potentially valuable water resource areas. (ID, KS, NH, SC, VT, FL, HI) (7)

Protect land areas and the quality of the environment near important sources of water. (NB, NC, VT, FL, IN, VA) (6)

Guarantee a sufficient quantityof high quality water for domestic as well as agricultural and industrial uses. (KS, NC, NH, CO, MO, TX) (6)

Develop a comprehensive water resource management program which involves inventorying water needs and problems, developing and continually revising water resource projections, formulating management alternatives, and developing intergovernmental approaches and plans. (KS, NC, NH, SC, FL, HI, TX) (7)

Ensure that adequate water levels exist and water resource needs are met in the future. (KS, NC, FL, LA, VA) (5)

Develop and enforce a statewide and regional solid waste disposal management plan. (NC, FL, HI, IN, TX) (5)

Design, establish, and enforce water quality standards. (NB, VT, CO, IN) (4)

Improve and upgrade policies and procedures for reviewing, approving, and financing Federal projects. (NB, NC, MO, VA) (4)

Transportation

Of the 20 States that reported on transportation, the majority of the population of 11 live in nonmetropolitan areas (IA, ID, KS, KY, NB, NC, NM, NH, SC, VT, WVA). Nine States are predominantly metropolitan (CO, FL, HI, IN, LA, MO, TX, WA). They reported the following shared concerns:

Road and highway needs are much greater than the available funds and revenue. (IA, ID, KY, NM, CO, LA, WA) (7)

Properly maintaining and improving road and highway systems is of utmost importance. (IA, ID, KY, NM, CO, LA, WA) (7)

The greatest road deficiencies exist on rural roads. (KS, FL, LA, VA) (4)

State highways and interstate systems have by-passed many small communities thus contributing to rural decline. (CO, HI, IN) (3)

Existing freight shipping structures discriminate against small shippers by charging high carrier freight rates. (CO, TX) (2)

They reported the following developmental responses:

Expand and update the capacity of existing aircraft facilities and construct new airports as well as extend regularly scheduled community service or third-level airline service to small communities and less populated regions. (KS, NB, NH, SC, WVA, CO, HI, IN, LA, MO) (10)

Encourage the expansion and improvement of mass transit service to less populated areas in order to facilitate and stimulate economic development and make small communities more accessible. (KS, NB, NC, SC, CO, FL, WA) (7)

Repair and improve rural roads. (KY, NB, NM, FL, IN, LA) (6)

Establish a comprehensive State transportation plan or policy. (IA, KS, NB, NH, IN, WA) (6)

Identify transportation needs. (IA, NB, CO, FL, IN) (5)

Plan for transportation in a way to encourage optimal and a more coordinated use of land resources and foster land development in harmony with the natural environment. (IA, KS, NH, HI, IN) (5)

Formulate statewide airport plans to evaluate present conditions and develop a master plan for immediate and future aviation requirements. (WVA, IN, LA, MO, TX) (5)

Give special attention to the unique transportation needs of poor, young, elderly, and handicapped citizens because they are either unable to afford and/or to operate a private vehicle. (KS, NC, FL, LA, WA) (5)

Utilize school buses during school hours or off-hours of operation to provide low-cost public transportation to disadvantaged rural residents. (KS, CO, WA) (3)

Encourage the use of various communications as a substitute for transportation. (KS, WA) (2)

Construct satellite warehouses and adjust shipping rates for consolidating shipments in and out of small urban areas and making it more advantageous for carriers to extend their service into isolated areas. (TX) (1)

Emphasize energy-efficient modes of transportation and assess energy trends. (IA, KS, NC, TX) (4)

STATE PERSPECTIVES ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

The natural resource base, climate, and topography of each of the 50 States vary, in some cases greatly. In addition, the ethnic background, cultural heritage, and settlement pattern, as well as other demographic characteristics of the population, differ. These differences--in both rural areas and urban areas--generate differing concerns and needs as well as differing responses to those concerns and needs. Furthermore, although these concerns, needs, and responses are affected by Federal policies and actions, they are too often not affected as intended, nor as uniformly as desired, because of these differences.

With regard to our major concern in this report--the rural population--increased awareness of these differing perspectives can help Federal decisionmakers formulate policies and take program actions which more effectively reflect the spirit of the national interest while at the same time being more responsive to the rural development needs and opportunities of the individual States.

In order to document the more significant State differences in rural development perspectives, the Governors of the 50 states were asked by the Rural Development Service for information with respect to issues, goals, plans, and recommendations pertaining to their State's rural areas.

The kinds of materials received from the 40 States which responded varied considerably depending on how the information was collected in the State, who collected it, and for what purpose it was collected. Many of the documents were researched and written by State government agencies such as the State Planning Office; others were products of special commissions or State university efforts. The method used to collect the information included surveys, seminars, and workshops to identify and record information on citizen's attitudes, as well as paper studies that developed goals, issues, policy options for planning, State plans, and Governors' State of the State messages. All the States did not use the same definition of rural and some did not always clearly differentiate between rural and urban or between metropolitan and nonmetropolitan concerns and responses.

Since a common methodology was not used in preparing the different States' material, rigorous analysis to identify national or regional patterns was not deemed feasible by the Rural Development Service. On the other hand, it was felt that a systematic review and documentation of the content of the more recent and more complete materials would be of value. Therefore, the material from the 40 States that responded was screened for currency, relevance, and geographic coverage and the information from 21 States was selected for a detailed content review.

The findings of the content review are organized by National Rural Development Progress category. Within each category the findings are arranged to highlight State trends, concerns, and responses. Where more than one State

reported similar trends, concerns, or responses, the number of States and the abbreviation of their name is shown. Those States in which more than 50 percent of the population live in nonmetropolitan areas are indicated by underlining the abbreviation of the State name.

Only the findings of the content review of information provided by the 21 States is presented in the following materials. No specific conclusions were drawn from the finding in the course of the study and the reader is cautioned against doing so. For example, it should not be assumed that only 5 of the 21 States mentioning emergency medical service share this concern, or that 23 percent of all States share this concern. The finding means merely that 5 of the 21 States studied mentioned emergency medical care services in the documents they provided. On the other hand, since 5 States volunteered comments on this subject, it is well to be alert to the possibility that this health care service may well be a primary concern in the rural areas of other States. Similarly, only two States report a strong negative citizen reaction to encouraging further immigration to the State at the present time. However, residents of other States may also feel this way or may assume this posture in the future.

INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT

The stage of economic development for each of the 18 States who provided information relative to income and employment varies considerably. A look at nonmetropolitan unemployment rates, employment trends in the industrial sectors, nonmetropolitan income, changes in the nonmetropolitan labor force, and needed improvements and assistance provide some indication of how the economies of the 18 States compare. The majority of the residents of 12 of the 18 States (IA, ID, KS, KY, MT, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, VT, WVA) live in nonmetropolitan areas, while most of the residents of the other States live in metropolitan areas (CO, HI, LA, TX, VA, WA). Four of these 18 States (KY, NB, NH, SC) outlined only their goals and recommendations for economic development while the other 14 discussed their economic concerns as well as approaches and recommendations for their improvement.

According to seven states (MT, NM, WVA, HI, LA, TX, WA), their nonmetropolitan unemployment rate is above the national average. In contrast, 5 other States (IA, KS, NC, VT, CO) report that unemployment in their nonmetropolitan areas is not a problem. Three of these 12 states (IA, NC, LA) mention two trends in unemployment that they have observed: the incidence of unemployment for two minorities--blacks and Indians--is higher than it is for whites; and, the number of employed women has not caught up with the employment figure for men.

In order to facilitate a discussion of employment trends among the industrial sectors, the various sectors were grouped together to form three categories--those sectors that depend on natural resources; those that are centered around some aspect of manufacturing; and those that are sustained by human resource employment. Eight States (IA, KS, NC, CO, HI, LA, TX, VA) reported that natural resource industries such as agriculture, mining, forestry, and fisheries are losing ground as dominant sectors of their economy. However, five other States (ID, MT, NM, VT, WA) said they attach a special significance

to natural resource industries as major employers of their nonmetropolitan work force. In contrast to the different opinions voiced by the States relative to the importance of natural resource industries, all of these 13 States pointed out that jobs in human resource sectors such as services, government, and trade are becoming and will continue to become more numerous. These 13 States also discussed their manufacturing employment record and all but three (NM, VT, HA) indicated that manufacturing based on replenishable and exhaustive natural resources is their most important industrial employer. The three States say that manufacturing is of little significance to their economy. Two trends in nonmetropolitan manufacturing were identified by three States:

*The three States (WVA, LA, VA) point out that nonmetropolitan manufacturing is developing a pattern of decentralization.

*According to the observations of two States (LA, VA), the most rapid rates of growth in nonmetropolitan manufacturing have occurred in small urban centers and areas adjacent to large cities.

Of the five States (IA, WVA, HI, LA, TX) that mention gross personal income, the three that are predominantly metropolitan point out that human resource sectors are the most significant contributors to their total personal income. The other two States, the majority of whose population live in nonmetropolitan areas, note that manufacturing is their most important industrial sector in terms of the percentage of their gross personal income it provides. Agriculture and/or mining are considered to be the least profitable sectors, according to four of the States (IA, HI, LA, TX).

The level of nonmetropolitan per capita income for all but two of the 14 States (HA, WA) is below the national average, according to their estimates. Five of these States (ID, NC, LA, TX, VA) report that they can substantiate at least one of the following correlations between nonmetropolitan per capita income and poverty levels commonly pointed out:

*People with a low level of education, according to four States (ID, NC, LA, TX), are likely to earn a low income.

*These same four States also said that elderly citizens, who are becoming an increasingly greater percentage of the nonmetropolitan population, as well as minorities and migrant workers are prone to high rates of poverty.

*Four States (NC, LA, TX, VA) say the poverty rates are higher and income levels are lower in rural areas than they are in more urban areas.

The nonmetropolitan labor pool was generally described as earning low wages, possessing low skill levels, and being employed by labor intensive industries by five States (KS, NC, HI, LA, TX). Each of these States identified one or two changes that are occurring in their nonmetropolitan labor force:

*Not surprisingly, four States (KS, NC, LA, TX) report that since agriculture has been dwindling in importance as a source of employment, many workers living in their nonmetropolitan areas have turned to nonagricultural industries, especially manufacturing, for their livelihood.

*According to information provided by two States (NC, HI), the size of the nonmetropolitan work force is increasing owing to migration into nonmetropolitan areas and/or growth in work force participation.

In establishing goals and developing recommendations all of the 14 States plus the four other States (KY, NB, NH, SC) providing some income and employment information said they focused their attention on ways to develop their economy and create quality jobs. The following recommendations and goals were those most frequently mentioned by several of the 18 States in conjunction with areas of needed improvement:

*The development of a decentralized and diversified industrial base was a goal mentioned by seven States (NB, NH, SC, HI, LA , TX, WA).

*Two goals--the expansion of existing industries in and the attraction of quality industries to nonmetropolitan and, more particularly, rural areas--were identified by seven States (ID, KY, NB, CO, LA, TX, WA).

*, ive States recommended that efforts be concentrated on those who are unemployed, underemployed, and economically disadvantaged as well as those who live in undeveloped rural areas (KS, KY, SC, IN, WA).

*Five States reported that they plan to enforce their goal of eliminating discrimination in employment based on race, sex, age, religion, and national origin (ID, KS, NC, SC, LA).

*Three States said they have already established an economic development policy (CO, LA, TX).

*The improvement of communication and cooperation between local, State, and Federal Governments is a recommendation established by three States (CO, HI, WA).

*Two States identified a goal which focuses on reversing the outmigration of the nonmetropolitan labor force, especially those workers living in less densely populated or rural areas and young workers (SC, CO).

The recognition by some States of available and potential sources of institutional assistance or the need for such assistance is documented by the following recommendations and goals:

*While 10 States identified as one of their goals the need to support and improve public, private, and business-sponsored manpower training and development programs, 6 of these 10 States have already established their own publicly supported program and/or are involved in CETA (*KS, KY, NB,*NC,*VT,*WVA, CO, *TX,*VA, WA).

*Of the nine States that have adopted a goal to develop, promote, and support programs and facilities for vocational-technical training, counseling, and placement services as well as adult education, two of these states reported that such facilities and programs are currently available (KS, NB, NC,*VT, *WVA, CO, TX, VA, WA).

*Four States indicated that they have already developed employment services, and two other States said they intend to (KY,*NB,*NC,*WVA,*TX, WA).

*A recommendation for increasing management and technical assistance to small farmers, businessmen, and industries located in nonmetropolitan areas was offered by three States (CO, TX, WA).

*Three States suggested that programs be created to provide adequate educational opportunities and day-care services for the children of laborers, especially migrant workers (NC, VT, LA).

The following programs and recommendations have been designed by five States who recognize the significant role financial assistance plays and the part their State government can play in economic development as well as some of the limitations and handicapping features of the private nonmetropolitan financial system and of public sources of funds:

*Four States have developed and support a State Industrial Development Authority, Commission, or Corporation for the purpose of supplementing and expanding business loan programs as well as providing grants for community facilities that can attract new industries and help existing industries expand. Two other States are recommending that a plan for the development of one of these agencies be created and adopted (*IA,*VT,*WVA, CO, *HI, TX).

*The alteration of State tax policies has been established as a goal by one State and is being considered by two other States (*WVA, CO, HI).

*Two States have developed programs for the issuance of industrial revenue bonds (WVA, TX).

POPULATION

Introduction

Of all the rural development categories, population--which was discussed by 15 States (IA, ID, KS, KY, NC, VT, CO, FL, HI, IN, LA, MO, TX, VA, WA)--offers the most concise examples of the diverse and varied trends among the States and between metropolitan areas and nonmetropolitan and rural areas. Trends reported by these States show that the concentration of people varies as much as the rate and cause of growth. Nine of the States (CO, FL, HA, IN, LA, MO, TX, VA, WA) indicated that a majority of their population lives in metropolitan areas, while the other six (IA, ID, KS, KY, NC, VT) reported that a greater number of their citizenry live in nonmetropolitan areas.

Trends and Concerns

Of the 15 States that mentioned growth rate trends, seven (ID, VT, FL, HA, TX, VA, WA) reported that they have experienced lower rates of growth than the national average since 1960. The growth rate in the other seven States (IA, KS, KY, NC, IN, LA, MO), according to their estimates, has exceeded the Nation's growth rate, either during the past 15 years or since 1970. One

State (CO) did not report on its rate of growth. Of the six nonmetropolitan States (IA, ID, KS, KY, NC, VT), four (IA, KS, KY, NC) pointed out that their growth rate has been declining. In contrast, the other two States (ID, VT) reported a sudden increase in population. The 15 States note that these trends in State population growth resulted from migration in or out of the State and/or an increase or a decrease in the State's birthrate.

Several trends were reported in metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas with respect to population dynamics:

*Five States (NC, IN, LA, MO, VA) reported that they are aware of a tendency among people to move away from the central city to the outer fringes of metropolitan areas. Additionally, three of these States (NC, IN, LA) pointed out that a more recent trend is occurring in the movement of people to small population centers in nonmetropolitan areas that offer adequate community services and good job opportunities.

*There is evidence, according to 10 States (ID, KS, NC, CO, IN, LA, MO, TX, VA, WA), of a downward trend in the growth rate of the rural population as a result of inadequate job opportunities for young people living in rural areas and more deaths than births.

*Eight States (ID, KS, KY, HI, IN, LA, MO, TX) mentioned that their elderly population (65 and older) is growing, and all but one of these (KY) said they are expecting their elderly population to continue to grow. Information collected by four States (ID, KS, MO, TX) indicates a large number of elderly people living in rural areas, and these four States plus two other States (IN, LA) reported that they are worried about providing the services these older people need.

*Four States (KY, MO, TX, VA) observed that black people are more likely to reside in metropolitan areas than in sparsely populated nonmetropolitan areas, while three States (NC, LA, TX) noted that ethnic minorities, such as Indians and Mexican-Americans, have no special tendency to locate in either metropolitan or rural areas disproportionately.

Future Growth Projections and Citizens' Attitudes

Three States (ID, HI, WA) of the nine (ID, KS, NC, FL, HI, IN, LA, MO, WA) that project growth trends for their population reported that their population will expand by over 1 million during the next 10 to 25 years if their current growth trends persist. Another State (FL) indicated that its population will probably triple to 12 million by 1990. Two states (NC, LA) mention reversals (inmigration and rising rates of natural increase) in their current growth trends and presume that the result of these trends will be an increasing rate of growth for their populations. One State (IN) expected no significant changes in its growth rate and felt its population will continue to increase at its current rate, approximately the same rate as that of the Nation. Two Plains States (KS, MO) reported that the lag in their growth rate, compared to the national average, will continue for the next 15 to 20 years and will possibly be combined with reductions in natural increase. These two States plus one other State (LA) also pointed out that the number of

households will probably increase due to the declining number of persons per household. One of these three States (KS) noted that reductions in fertility and increases in the number of people living alone are partially responsible for the development of this trend.

In addition to making predictions regarding the growth of their population, four of the nine States (ID, FL, HI, WA) plus one other State (CO) asked a selected portion of their citizens through the use of surveys what their attitude is toward the future growth of their State's population. The four States (ID, FL, HI, WA) expecting a rapid increase in the size of their population indicated that the majority of their citizens think the present size of their State's population is "about right." One (FL) of these four States also polled its county commissioners and another State (ID) surveyed some of its community leaders on their views about their State's growth rate. The greater percentage of the county commissioners indicated that they would prefer to see the State reduce its population growth rate as well as encourage future growth in small communities. Over half of the community leaders surveyed reported they want "limited growth" for their State's population. The majority of citizens in the other two (HI, WA) States indicated that they are adamantly opposed to encouraging future inmigration. Judging from the survey results of these four States and their corresponding expectations of future population growth, it may be concluded that the kind of growth citizens want and the growth that will actually occur may not parallel each other in every State.

The fifth State (CO) questioned citizens residing in rural areas with increasing and decreasing rates of population growth as well as metropolitan areas and recorded their responses according to their place of residence. Over half of the citizens living in both types of rural areas reported that the rate of growth for their community is "about right" while the majority of metropolitan citizens reported that their area is growing "too fast."

Growth Policies, Goals, and Strategies

As a means of encouraging desirable population growth trends, 6 of the 15 States (KS, CO, FL, IN, VA, WA) have developed and/or adopted growth policies, while another State (LA) has established statewide goals. Six States (CO, FL, IN, LA, VA, WA) indicated the need to promote a better balance between growing and depressed areas or an even geographical distribution in terms of population growth and economic activities. The other State (KS) identified the development of an urban/rural balance as one of its growth policy options in contrast to the option of allowing population to concentrate in one area. Three States (CO, LA, VA) noted that plans must be made for future settlement patterns. Special concerns related to their metropolitan areas are mentioned by three States (CO, IN, WA). Two of these (CO, IN) noted that there is a need to regulate metropolitan growth, while the other indicated a need to revitalize its central city areas.

Four of the States (CO, FL, IN, LA) that have developed policies and goals related to population growth and one other State (HA) have adopted or are considering the use of growth strategies based on such concepts as carrying capacity, growth centers, new towns, and growth clusters as a means

of planning for future population growth. Two of these States (FL, HI) reported that they intend to use the carrying capacity concept, which is based on the prevention or reduction of overloads for environmental as well as natural and manmade resource systems. One of these two States (FL) indicated that it plans to implement this strategy at the local level rather than on a statewide basis because of the uneven distribution of growth stresses in the State.

The three States (CO, IN, LA) that are studying the use of the growth center strategy report that it focuses on the use of State planning regions or districts to encourage the development of population centers of a certain size. Two of these States reported the growth center size in their State that is most capable of sustaining growth. One State (LA) noted that centers of the 5,000 to 10,000 population size have been consistent in their growth, while the other State (IN) pointed out that centers ranging from 25,000 to 50,000 people constitute the minimum size.

The three States also indicated that the growth center strategy allocates specific responsibilities to the State--managing and coordinating public investment funds for local government as well as improving the infrastructure. The regions also have certain responsibilities--providing adequate public facilities and services. Two (CO, LA) of these States reported that they are enthusiastic about this strategy because of the potential benefits it has to offer--the improvement of employment opportunities and communications between local and State governments as well as the development of a balance between urban and rural areas. The other State (IN) mentioned two concerns it has with this strategy; they are related to the division of decision-making responsibilities among the local, regional, and state governments as well as the adequacy of the process used in designating the centers.

Two (CO, IN) of the three States that are studying the growth center strategy are also considering another method, new towns. Both States described new towns as being self-sufficient communities located near major urban centers whose purpose is to bring jobs and homes closer together. One of these two States (CO) noted the suitability of the new town strategy for rural areas.

The other State (IN) mentioned an interest in the growth clusters strategy or area development, which it reports as being similar to the growth center method. This State noted that the growth cluster strategy is broader in scope than the growth center strategy--planning regions and districts are viewed in terms of the concentration of public investments in "areas" where the potential multiplier effect is greatest rather than in specific "centers."

HOUSING

Housing is an important issue in nonmetropolitan life as viewed by the 15 States (IA, ID, KS, KY, MT, NB, NC, NH, SC, VT, CO, HI, TX, VA, WA) who identified housing concerns and subsequent responses to these concerns as well as new trends in housing. As a rural development progress category, housing represents another example where there are very different conditions in each State and a great variety of recommendations offered by the States for improving these conditions. While eight of the States (IA, KS, KY, NC, VT, CO, HI, TX) discussed some of their concerns and recommendations related to the quality of their housing stock and new trends in housing, seven others presented only their recommendations.

All but one of the eight States (HI) discussed two major housing concerns--the scarcity of adequate, affordable housing for low-income people and substandard housing conditions (homes that are overcrowded and without complete, indoor plumbing facilities). According to six of these States (KS, KY, NC, VT, CO, TX), minorities, migrant farm laborers, and low-income people who live in less populated nonmetropolitan areas suffer to a greater extent from deteriorating and substandard housing conditions than most other nonmetropolitan residents. Two States (KS, TX) pointed out that the proportion of deteriorating and substandard houses in their rural areas appears to be larger than the proportion in most of their more closely settled areas.

A third housing concern, discussed by three States (KS, CO, TX), is the problem of financing the construction of houses in nonmetropolitan and more particularly rural areas. Although all three States were quick to point out shortcomings associated with Federal housing programs, all but one State (CO) said they rely on Federal sources of housing assistance as their major source of subsidy to finance their State housing projects and programs.

There are two nonmetropolitan housing trends--the growth of mobile homes and the construction of multifamily dwellings--which may become problems in the future, according to three States (VT, CO, HI), even though as these States plus two other States (KS, TX) noted, these trends evolved as solutions to the need for more good quality, less expensive homes.

Realizing the pivotal role housing plays in the future of their economy, all of the eight States plus seven others (ID, MT, NB, NH, SC, VA, WA) have developed and plan to adopt and implement housing assistance and services as well as housing controls as a means of improving their nonmetropolitan housing stock for the benefit of all nonmetropolitan residents but especially low-income and elderly people. Following are some solutions common to several States that suggested housing assistance and service improvements:

*While three States (IA, HI, TX) have already established statewide or regional housing authorities, four others (CO, KY, KS, SC) reported that they are recommending that a housing authority be developed as a means of accomplishing their goals of decent housing for all nonmetropolitan residents, and more particularly low-income and elderly people, and of securing funds for housing subsidy programs.

*Two other States (SC, WA) mentioned the establishment of such agencies as housing corporations as a housing goal whose purpose is to provide assistance in the development and management of housing in nonmetropolitan areas.

*The authority to deposit State funds in nonmetropolitan institutions for the construction and rehabilitation of housing has been delegated to a State agency or officials in four States. (IA, CO, HI, WA)

*Establishing a State agency or preparing a plan to sell bonds to provide seed money, construction loans, mortgages, and low-interest loans for low and moderate income housing are solutions identified by four States. (MT, NC, CO, TX)

*Providing technical advisory services in nonmetropolitan areas is a recommendation made by four States as a means of assisting local governments and low-income citizens in applying for Federal and State funds and, in general, delivering housing services to nonmetropolitan residents, especially those who have low or moderate incomes. (NB, VT, TX, WA)

*One goal of two States' overall State housing plan is the appropriation of funds for vocational-technical training in the building trades for the purpose of providing low-cost housing and developing the nonmetropolitan skilled labor market. (TX, WA)

*Providing adequate housing for and eliminating discriminatory housing practices against all nonmetropolitan residents, especially low-income people, are goals mentioned by 12 States, who said these goals are essential components of their housing plan. (ID, KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, SC, VT, CO, HI, VA, WA)

*Proposals for coordinating, disseminating, and analyzing nonmetropolitan housing information related to programs, projects, and agencies have been designed by five States as a means of planning for the future. (KS, NC, SC, CO, WA)

*Six States recommended that most of their obsolete and dilapidated housing stock be repaired or replaced, especially in declining nonmetropolitan areas. (IA, ID, KS, NC, NH, WA)

*Reducing construction costs and protecting housing investments by adopting a uniform, minimum, statewide construction and housing code was an objective mentioned by five States. (NC, NH, TX, VA, WA)

*Three States noted that planning for the future could be facilitated by the adoption of a State rural housing public policy. (KS, CO, TX)

*The need to do research into the innovative use of construction and design techniques and materials is a recommendation made by three States for the purpose of adapting to changes in the American family and reducing housing construction costs. (NH, TX, WA)

Introduction

There are more similarities among the findings of the 18 States that wrote about the status of health care in their nonmetropolitan areas than there are differences. Discussions of several aspects of health--manpower, facilities, services, and improved care--verify the States' tendency to offer related information. The seven predominately metropolitan States (CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA, WA) made a distinction between health care concerns in their nonmetropolitan areas and their metropolitan areas. The information provided by the other 11 States (IA, ID, KS, KY, MT, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, VT) is representative of needed improvements in and problems with health care in nonmetropolitan areas.

An acute shortage of available health manpower, especially physicians, in nonmetropolitan areas and in particular small communities and less populated areas was mentioned by all of the 18 States except three (NH, NM, VT). Four of these States (KS, FL, IN, TX) said they are also aware of a shortage of dentists. Seven States (ID, KS, NC, CO, TX, VA, WA) indicated they are using or are considering using paramedical support--paramedics, physician's assistants, and nurse practitioners--to assist in the delivery of primary health care. However, they said trying to attract para-professionals to rural areas can be equally as difficult as trying to attract doctors and dentists.

A number of States are also encountering problems with medical and health care facilities, especially hospitals. On the one hand, five States (IA, MT, CO, LA, TX) reported that they have adequate general and specialized health care facilities in their nonmetropolitan areas, but these facilities are operated inefficiently and expensively owing to inadequate staffing and/or low occupancy rates. On the other hand, four States (ID, KY, FL, IN) said their health care facilities are concentrated in their more urban centers, making easy access to hospitals and health care facilities difficult for many nonmetropolitan and most rural residents.

Several States offered a number of recommendations for the purpose of motivating dentists, physicians, and para-professionals to work in nonmetropolitan areas:

*Six States suggested that a state plan for awarding scholarships, grants, and loans be used to encourage students to practice in rural areas after they graduate. (CO, FL, LA, TX, VA, WA)

*The establishment of continuing education programs in nonmetropolitan areas for the purpose of training para-professionals and updating their skills and knowledge is a goal common to six States. (KS, NC, CO, FL, VA, WA)

*Recruiting students from rural areas is a proposal made by two States. (VA, WA)

*The provision of clinical training, internships, and field training programs in rural areas is an objective of three States. (CO, FL, TX)

*Two States recommended that legal constraints associated with malpractice by para-professionals and physicians be clarified or revised. (VA, WA)

Four trends in health care and services--emergency medical services, health education, preventive health programs, and areawide and regional health care facilities and outpatient mental health centers--were cited by a number of States as remedial approaches to the shortcomings of health manpower and health care facilities:

*Three States (NC, FL, LA) noted that they have already built regional or areawide health care facilities and outpatient mental health centers, while 11 other States (IA, ID, KS, MT, NB, NH, NM, CO, IN, TX, VA) said they plan to construct these facilities or modernize their existing health care facilities.

*Emergency medical services programs that incorporate emergency ambulance service; programs to train, certify, and license local ambulance attendants and emergency room personnel; and communications equipment were identified by five States as being either in a stage of development or in full operation. (CO, FL, IN, TX, VA)

*Eight States (ID, KS, KY, FL, IN, TX, VA, WA) said they are promoting the idea of designing and implementing or strengthening locally based school and consumer health education programs. Additionally, three of these States (KS, VA, WA) indicated they want to concentrate on educating disadvantaged families who live in more sparsely populated areas, so they are developing outreach programs such as Home Visitation Programs.

*According to nine States, treatment to reduce communicable diseases and preventive health care services such as immunization, diagnostic and preventive screening, physical and dental examinations, maternal and infant care, and family planning should be available to all nonmetropolitan residents, especially those people who live in less densely settled areas. (ID, KS, NB, NC, FL, IN, LA, TX, WA)

The following three recommendations offer additional ideas and suggestions for improving the availability and quality of health care services in nonmetropolitan areas:

*Eleven States indicated they have placed among their health care priorities the establishment or improvement and support of comprehensive facilities, services, and/or programs in nonmetropolitan areas for the elderly and migrant workers as well as those for the treatment, education, prevention and rehabilitation of the mentally and physically handicapped, emotionally and mentally disturbed, drug addicts, and alcoholics. (IA, KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, FL, IN, LA, TX, WA)

*Ten States recommended that a continuous and comprehensive program be developed that plans for, experiments with, and evaluates health care services and needs. An integral part of this program is the collection, dissemination, and analysis of health care information. (IA, ID, KS, NC, CO, FL, IN, TX, VA, WA)

*Owing to the rising cost of personal health care, 10 States recommended that action be taken to control the costs of health care and/or that assistance be provided to aid the large numbers of nonmetropolitan residents who earn a

low income and are otherwise unable to afford the expense of health care services. (IA, ID, KS, MT, NB, NC, FL, IN, VA, WA)

EDUCATION

The plans of the 19 States that discussed education offer a wealth of varied information particularly with respect to the quality of public education in nonmetropolitan areas; the financial state of public and private education; career education; and measures for improving the quality of education. The greater percentage of residents in seven of these 19 States live in metropolitan areas (CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA, WA), while most of the residents of the other 12 States live in places with 50,000 or fewer inhabitants. (IA, ID, KS, KY, MT, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, VT, WVA)

The quality of education available to students who attend schools located in many nonmetropolitan and most sparsely populated areas was discussed in depth by two States (FL, VA). Both said that it is inferior compared with the quality of education available to students who attend their metropolitan schools. Both States substantiated their conclusion by noting some of the prevailing rural educational trends:

*Generally speaking, both States reported that the educational facilities and equipment as well as the curriculum in their nonmetropolitan school systems are well below the standards of most metropolitan schools.

*According to one State (FL), the merits associated with education are judged to be few by most of the people who live in the State's small communities. This is consistent with the low level of ambition this same State noted that many of the young people living in these areas have to attend college and to find jobs that require special training or knowledge.

*The other State (VA) pointed out that the low standardized test scores made by many students who attend nonmetropolitan schools reflect the poor quality of these schools and are one manifestation of the relatively lower level of educational achievement among such students.

In sum, when contrasted with the results of educational opportunities in metropolitan areas, both States plus another State (IN) asserted that the results of conditions in nonmetropolitan school systems are as dismal as the conditions themselves. Young people who grow up in small communities spend fewer years in the classroom, on the whole, than youth in metropolitan areas and the quality of the jobs available to them is not as good.

The primary concern regarding quality of education as specified by 14 States (IA, KS, MT, NC, NM, SC, WVA, CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA, WA) centers around the provision of adequate financial support. Two of these States (FL, VA) pointed out that small communities usually reserve a larger portion of their budget to support their school system than do more densely settled population centers. However, the size of the small school system's budget seldom permits it to make expenditures for anything other than basic educational needs such as teacher salaries, bus transportation, purchase of supplies, and property maintenance.

On the subject of State support for public education, three States (IA, KS, NC) (the majority of whose population resides in nonmetropolitan areas) said they have adequate State revenues earmarked for public education throughout the State. Four other States (CO, IN, TX, WA) that are predominantly metropolitan reported that a more just system for distributing State funds needs to be developed.

Eight States (KS, MT, NC, NM, WVA, CO, LA, WA) said another financial concern that is demanding their attention is the need to improve access to and assistance for private institutions of higher education, owing to the rising cost of this education and many students' inability to afford the cost of college.

Sixteen of the 19 States (ID, KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, WVA, CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA, WA) reported that they believe career education, a new concept in education designed to help students become better prepared to enter the labor force and cope with changes in society, should be integrated into the curriculum at all levels of education. Vocational, technical, and occupational training plus continuing and adult education were identified by 13 States (ID, KY, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, WVA, CO, FL, IN, VA, WA) as areas of career education that should receive special emphasis, particularly at the secondary and postsecondary levels.

Responses

With the future needs of their citizenry in mind, all of the 19 States with the exception of one (MT) indicated that they feel very keenly the need to ensure that the educational opportunities available to citizens in their nonmetropolitan areas are of an excellent quality. Each of these States offered one or more of the following recommendations:

*Twelve States indicated that they are interested in expanding, improving, and making more efficient use of education facilities in less densely populated areas as well as providing modern teaching materials and education programs to nonmetropolitan students at all levels of education according to their needs, interests, and abilities. (KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, NM, SC, VT, CO, FL, IN, TX)

*Eleven States indicated that they are interested in devoting their attention to the design and delivery of specialized educational services, programs, and/or facilities for exceptional students in every dimension--gifted, multi-lingual, culturally handicapped, and mentally and physically handicapped. However, as two States (VA, FL) pointed out, many rural school districts cannot afford to provide for specialized educational needs of students. (KS, NB, NH, SC, WVA, FL, IN, LA, TX, VA, WA)

*In light of changing intellectual, social, and economic needs, 10 States indicated that they are aware of the importance of educational evaluation and planning at all levels of learning. (KS, NC, NM, WVA, CO, FL, IN, LA, TX, WA)

*Ten States recommended developing and adopting an equitable and adequate school finance program in nonmetropolitan and more especially rural areas. Additionally, two of these nine States (KS, NM) noted that public school

enrollments have declined during the past few years and will continue to decline at all levels, a trend with implications for school financing. (ID, NB, NC, NH, SC, CO, FL, TX, VA, WA)

*Eight States reported that there is a need to improve the quality of their nonmetropolitan public school personnel and to meet the changing needs in education and students' individual needs by supporting and promoting training programs and refresher courses for teachers and administrators at all levels. (KS, NB, NC, NH, FL, IN, LA, TX)

*Nine States reported that preschool or early childhood education is or should be available to young children in their nonmetropolitan areas. (KY, NB, NC, SC, WVA, FL, IN, TX, VA)

*Six States discussed the need to develop or improve appropriate support services in the form of guidance, placement, and counseling programs for students and their parents throughout all phases of the educational process. (NC, WVA, FL, IN, LA, WA)

*Six States indicated that there is a need to provide or expand high quality mass media resources and materials in nonmetropolitan areas, but more especially rural areas. (IA, NB, NH, IN, TX, WA)

*Five States (FL, IN, TX, VA, WA) discussed the benefits nonmetropolitan communities, especially small rural communities, can gain if access to public school facilities is expanded for after-school activities, such as adult and occupational education classes, and for community enrichment, such as recreational and cultural opportunities. One of these five States (WA) pointed out the central role the school can play in many small communities as an argument against consolidation--which this State plus two other States (ID, TX) acknowledged to be a sensitive issue.

*The expansion and improvement of library facilities and services is a goal established by five States to improve rural residents' access to education. (KY, NB, VT, IN, TX)

*Four States offered recommendations that would permit public schools to utilize para-professional personnel to assist full-time, professional teachers. (KS, TN, TX, WA)

*Three States recommended that students and citizens be encouraged to become actively involved in the planning and implementation of educational programs. (NB, CO, WA)

WATER AND WASTE

Introduction

Sixteen States outlined at length or listed goals and recommendations related to their nonmetropolitan water and waste situation. More specifically, these States discussed the quality and quantity of the surfacewater and groundwater supply currently available to them, the absence of adequate water and liquid and solid waste disposal facilities, and some of the goals and recommendations they have developed to ensure that an adequate supply of high

quality water is available now and in the future to meet their various water resource needs. The citizens of 8 of the 16 States (ID, KS, KY, NB, NC, NH, SC, VT) reside primarily in nonmetropolitan areas, while the larger percentage of the populations of the other eight States (CO, FL, HI, IN, LA, MO, TX, VA) live in metropolitan areas. The eight predominantly metropolitan States identified water and waste disposal problems and recommendations that are peculiar to their nonmetropolitan areas.

Concerns

Current Status of Nonmetropolitan Water Supply. Of the 10 States that discussed the sources of their water supply--surfacewater and groundwater--six (ID, KS, NC, FL, HI, LA) reported that their total water supply is ample. However, five of these six (KS, NC, FL, HI, LA) plus another State (TX) also noted that the abundance of water resources varies from one region to another. Examples of regional variation were provided by five States (KS, NC, LA, MO, VA) who indicate that they are concerned about the eventual depletion of groundwater in specific areas, especially in their less densely populated areas. Three of these five States (NC, LA, MO) noted that groundwater sources account for a large percentage of their domestic or public water supply because they do not require additional storage facilities and, in general, they need less treatment and provide higher quality water than surfacewater sources. One of these three States (MO) pointed out that a significant number of communities that rely on groundwater sources do not treat their water. However, all five States noted that the most serious threats to groundwater sources are pollution from improper disposal of industrial and agricultural wastes as well as from the intrusion of saltwater in freshwater aquifers and drainage from lowering the water table over a large area for open pit mining and from use for agricultural purposes.

Five States (VT, FL, HI, LA, MO) reported that sources of surfacewater are relatively abundant but many of these sources cannot be used to supply community water systems. One State (LA) pointed out that the quality of surfacewater depends to a large degree upon the characteristics of its source--precipitation, runoff, inflows, and groundwater. More specifically, two of these five States (VT, LA) noted that much of their surfacewater cannot be used for domestic or public use because it is an open system and therefore especially subject to contamination. Once surfacewater sources are contaminated, these two States pointed out, they are expensive to treat. One State (VT) further noted that surfacewater systems are developed at a considerable cost. Additionally, these two States reported that a primary source of surfacewater contamination is the nutrients in industrial, municipal, and agricultural wastes which contribute to oxygen deficiencies and accelerated eutrophication--or the growth of algae--in surfacewater sources.

Nonmetropolitan Water and Sewage Problems and Concerns. In addition to the quality and quantity of the available water supply, five States (FL, HA, IN, MO, VA) mentioned the adequacy of sewer and water facilities as a significant factor in the determination of and the most visible form of potential State influence on the growth pattern and economic development that occurs in a local area. In general, two of these States (FL, VA) pointed out that a central water supply and public sewage facilities are absent in many sparsely

populated areas owing to the high cost of providing such services and the growth pattern of the area. Seven States (KS, NC, VT, FL, HI, IN, MO) that discussed the types of water and sewage disposal facilities that serve their population noted that most households in each State are serviced by public water facilities and municipal water systems. However, these seven States also pointed out that those homes located in areas outside the boundaries of municipal water systems, such as new housing developments and isolated areas, rely on private water supply systems such as wells. One of these States (HI) mentioned the fact that it is expensive to integrate an external area into a public water system. Two other States (NC, VT) noted that many private and smaller public water systems, in general, are poorly maintained and provide an inadequate water supply.

One State (FL) reported that improper and inadequate liquid waste disposal is a greater problem in less densely populated areas than is the lack of water for domestic use. Another State (MO) noted that waste water will become a water supply source as the demand for water increases; thus, proper treatment of waste water is important. These two States plus four other States (NC, VT, HI, IN) pointed out the fact that while municipal treatment facilities and public sewers service larger communities, areas with a low housing density are serviced primarily by septic tanks as well as cesspools and other individual private methods of liquid sewage disposal. Three of these six States (FL, IN, VT) in addition to one other State (TX) indicated that they are aware of the potential health hazards and serious pollution and contamination problems associated with septic tanks. The occasional failure of septic tanks may be attributed to two possible causes. Two States (FL, VT) noted that the capacity of the soil to absorb waste water is a measure of suitability for the use of septic tanks. These two States plus two other States (HI, IN) reported that under certain circumstances soils are incapable of properly filtering sewage, causing waste water to seep into wells and other domestic water supplies as well as groundwater sources. A second cause of septic tank failure--faulty design or improper construction--was mentioned by two States (TX, VT).

Although one State (MO) pointed out that the relationship between solid waste disposal and water is not as important or significant as the relationship between liquid waste disposal and water, seven States (KY, NC, SC, FL, HI, IN, TX) identified solid waste disposal as a problem that currently plagues many small communities and rural areas. Two of these States (HI, TX) noted that until recent years little attention has been paid to solid waste collection and disposal in less populated areas and the public health hazards and environmental problems that can develop from the absence of proper solid waste disposal management and planning. One State (NC) in addition to these two States reported that landfills are the most common means of disposing of solid waste. Moreover, one of these three States (TX) mentioned the fact that the majority of its substandard landfills are open dumps, most of which are located in rural areas.

Responses

Improvements for the Nonmetropolitan Water Supply. All of the sixteen States indicated that they have a keen awareness of and deep concern for the

quality and quantity of their water supply, especially as it relates to future domestic and industrial uses. In anticipation of future nonmetropolitan water resource needs, the States offered the following recommendations and goals as measures to aid in the preservation or expansion of the quantity of water currently available to them and the improvement of the quality of their water.

*Eight States indicated they feel very strongly about eliminating pollution from their water sources, especially their streams, rivers, and lakes, and have established goals to facilitate the accomplishment of this objective. (ID, KY, NC, NH, VT, HI, IN, LA)

*Seven States that reported they are concerned about meeting future water needs have established goals for the identification, acquisition, and protection of known or potentially valuable water resource areas. (ID, KS, NH, SC, VT, FL HI)

*In order to maintain the value and quality of existing water resources, six States offered a recommendation to protect land areas and the quality of the environment near important sources of water. (NB, NC, VT, FL, IN, VA)

*Guaranteeing a sufficient quantity of high quality water for domestic as well as agricultural and industrial uses is a goal which six States established because they feel that water quality is linked with its eventual use. (KS, NC, NH, CO, MO, TX)

*The development of a comprehensive water resource management program is a recommendation made by seven States for the purpose of (1) ensuring that sufficient water will be available at a reasonable cost to enhance economic development and growth patterns and (2) developing water resources in a coordinated and efficient manner. An inventory of water needs and problems, the development and continuous revision of water resource projections, the formulation of management alternatives, and the development of intergovernmental approaches and plans are several of the steps these States identified as being involved in the design and implementation of such a management program. (KS, NC, NH, SC, FL, HI, TX)

*Five States indicated they are interested in ensuring that adequate water levels exist and water resources needs are met in the future through using the most efficient method and minimizing impairment to the environment. To accomplish these objectives, these States have established goals for long-range planning which involves noting anticipated water resource demands and sources of supply as well as providing a course for policy and action. (KS, NC, FL, LA, VA)

*Two States (NC, HI) reported they have already designed and are implementing a statewide solid waste disposal management program, and three other States (FL, IN, TX) indicated they believe an essential step in protecting the quality of the environment and preventing public health problems is the development and enforcement of a statewide and regional solid waste disposal management plan.

*Four states said they recommend the design, establishment, and enforce-

ment of water quality standards which should function as a guide in water use and especially water waste disposal for small communities and industries located in sparsely populated areas. (NB, VT, CO, IN)

*Four States described their State policies and procedures for reviewing, approving, and financing Federal water and sewer projects as being uncoordinated and inadequate, and therefore recommended that they be improved and upgraded. (NB, NC, MO, VA)

*One State (KS) offered the recommendation that serious attention be given to water resource development through private and State funding based on what this State and another State (TX) consider to be insufficient Federal funds available for water resource development.

TRANSPORTATION

Introduction

The theme of diversity is evident in the information on transportation supplied by 20 States. A greater number of the residents of 11 of these 20 States live in nonmetropolitan areas (IA, ID, KS, KY, NB, NC, NM, NH, SC, VT, WVA). A larger number of the residents of the remaining nine States live in metropolitan areas (CO, FL, HI, IN, LA, MO, TX, VA, WA).

Concerns

Five States (KS, NB, CO, LA, WA) noted that the private automobile is the most commonly used form of transportation in their State. This fact is consistent with the major emphasis placed on and large investment made in the development of highway and road systems reported by six States (KS, NC, WVA, IN, LA, TX). Five of these six States (KS, NC, WVA, IN, TX) plus two other States (VT, VA) indicated that they are aware of the impact their system of roads has on the growth of their economy.

According to three States (VT, WVA, TX), interstate and State highway systems have played a very important role in stimulating and accelerating the growth and development of small growth centers, by improving the linkage and reducing the distance between these centers and larger urban areas. In contrast to these States, three other States (CO, HI, IN) indicated that their State highway and interstate systems have bypassed many small communities, and this has contributed to rural decline in addition to reinforcing and encouraging growth and expansion in more urbanized areas.

Two States (KS, NC) noted that the agricultural base which sustains their economy and the economy of a number of States in the past caused them as well as the other States to build and construct a comprehensive rural road system to facilitate farm-to-market transportation. Thus, as these two States plus six other States (KY, NB, NM, FL, IN, LA) pointed out, the need for new rural road construction is not as great as the need for repair and improvement. Additionally, four States (KS, FL, LA, VA) noted that their greatest road

deficiencies exist on rural roads and the most urgent expenditure needs are for these roads.

In general, seven States (IA, ID, KY, NM, CO, LA, WA) said they agree that properly maintaining and improving their road and highway system is of primary importance. However, because road and highway needs are much greater than the available funds and revenue to remedy them, proper care of their system of roads was a source of concern to these States.

To adequately accommodate the increasingly significant role aviation is assuming in economic and industrial growth, air service needs to be expanded, especially to small communities and less populated areas, according to 10 States (KS, NB, NH, SC, WVA, CO, HI, IN, LA, MO). These States also noted that the construction of new airport facilities and the improvement of existing facilities must accompany the expansion of air service. In order to meet these needs, five States (WVA, IN, LA, MO, TX) mentioned that they are formulating or have established statewide airport plans to evaluate present conditions and to develop a master plan for immediate and future aviation requirements.

Public transportation is a term that encompasses several modes of transportation such as intercity transportation, rail passenger service, and urban mass transportation. In general, three States (KS, LA, WA) note that public transportation systems receive less emphasis and are less profitable than highway and air transportation. However, four States (KS, NC, LA, TX) said they need to reexamine their public transportation services because of the fuel situation and the diverse transportation needs of the public.

Although urban mass transportation has been steadily declining in quality and decreasing in size since World War II according to two States (KS, LA), both of these States plus 3 others (ID, SC, WA) noted that it provides an indispensable service to citizens living in metropolitan areas. Three of these 5 States (KS, SC, WA) plus four others (NC, NB, CO, FI) reported that they are encouraging the expansion and improvement of mass transit service to less populated areas in order to facilitate and stimulate economic development and make small communities more accessible. These six States also indicated that they are aware that more sparsely populated areas and small urban areas require different solutions to their public transportation needs than those in metropolitan areas. One solution mentioned by three States (KS, CO, WA) as having the potential to provide low-cost service to rural disadvantaged residents is the fuller utilization of school buses during school hours or offhours of operation.

In contrast, five States (IA, ID, KS, TX, WA) indicated that rail passenger service and intercity passenger transportation are waning and are expected to continue to decline in importance in their States.

The movement of freight by air and rail transportation as well as common carrier or shipment by truck was cited by four States (NH, CO, IN, TX) as an asset to the economic development of nonmetropolitan areas and in particular remote and less densely populated areas. Nevertheless, two of these States (CO, TX) reported that existing freight shipping structures discriminate

against small shippers (and most shippers in more sparsely populated areas are small) by charging high carrier freight rates. One of these States (TX) recommended the construction of satellite warehouses and the adjustment of shipping rates for consolidating shipments in and out of small urban areas and making it more advantageous for carriers to extend their service into isolated areas.

Recognizing the importance of promoting and supporting an efficient and integrated, multi-modal transportation system, each of the 20 States offered one of several of the following recommendations and proposals for the purpose of achieving this objective:

*The importance of encouraging optimal and a more coordinated use of land resources as well as fostering land development in harmony with the natural environment are objectives that five States have established which they believe must be incorporated in the planning and development of their transportation system. (IA, KS, NH, HI, IN)

*Six States indicated that their goal of establishing a comprehensive State transportation plan or policy for efficient and economical intrastate travel should be beneficial in integrating and coordinating all modes of transportation into a unified system with adequate facilities and services to meet future needs. (IA, KS, NB, NH, IN, WA)

*Five States pointed out that their goal--the identification of transportation needs--should be instrumental in improving transportation services for their population and in developing the more standard modes of transportation such as highways, airports, and mass transit. (IA, NB, CO, FL, IN)

*Four States that discussed energy as it relates to their transportation system offered recommendations which stress the need to emphasize energy-efficient modes of transportation and to assess energy trends. (IA, KS, NC, TX)

*The need to reduce transportation was mentioned by two States who are encouraging the use of new transportation technology such as communication as a substitute for transportation. (KS, WA)

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